
PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

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THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

THE Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada is an association of public agencies, officials, and private citizens engaged or interested in public personnel administration. The constituent public agencies of the Assembly are civil service commissions and boards, or personnel offices serving a particular governmental department or division. They serve national, state, and local governments of the United States, and Dominion, provincial, and local areas in Canada. The Assembly was organized in 1906 by officials and others actually engaged in civil service and other public personnel activities in order to provide mutual help in meeting common problems and to improve public personnel administration. A Headquarters Office has been established at 1313 East 60th Street in Chicago, Illinois, to serve as a clearinghouse for information on public personnel matters.

Civil Service in War-Time Britain

HERMAN FINER

GREAT BRITAIN, armed and girded for the epic struggle that is World War II, is today a nation in which time-worn traditions and fixations have gone by the board. The exigencies of this war era have wrought many changes that reach to the very roots of the country's governmental system, both national and local. These changes have had repercussions upon Parliament, upon the Cabinet system, upon the Civil Service, and finally, but fundamentally, upon the people. To students of government in general, and particularly to those who here devote attention to the problems of public personnel administration, many of these transitions will have considerable significance. In this article an effort will be made to capture from the rapid shift of current events those elements in the present pattern of the British national governmental structure and civil service that may be of especial interest to public personnel officials on this side of the Atlantic.

THE WAR CABINET

UNDER the Premiership of Mr. Churchill, the supreme executive power rests in a war Cabinet of eight men. Only four of these officers have departmental responsibilities, while four are without. For example, those who have no departmental respon-

sibilities are the former Minister of Aircraft production, Lord Beaverbrook; Sir John Anderson, a former civil servant of a great line of civil servants; and Mr. Atlee and Mr. Greenwood, of the Labor Party. The Labor members are without portfolio, and do no departmental work, but are concerned with the general course of the work and with coordination. Then, there are three ministers who have departmental responsibilities: the Foreign Minister; the Chancellor of the Exchequer; and the Minister of Labor, Mr. Bevin. The main tasks of the Cabinet are divided into three great branches—economic and home policy, foreign policy, and defense—and their administration has been put under a system that warrants brief description.

Mr. Churchill, as well as being Prime Minister, is Minister of Defense, and occupies a position of supreme authority over the three fighting services, the chiefs of staff committee, and the various committees of Joint Military Planning and Intelligence. Defense begins with those conceptions of military strategy which dominate and really decide the chief priorities—what kind of a war must be fought, and, therefore, what kind of weapons are required for that war. Mr. Churchill is the liaison between the Defense Committee and the war Cabinet, and, in the war Cabinet, he unites the military with the economic and home side.

As for foreign policy, Mr. Eden, of course, has no committee. He is directly a member of the war Cabinet and is in constant consultation with it. But for economic and

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home policy a really careful coordination of the various departments is required—coordination which reaches right down to the extremities of economic and civil life. Hence, there are five ministerial committees for: (1) home policy; (2) civil defense policy; (3) food policy; (4) imports; and (5) production and priorities.

EACH of these committees is headed by a minister, and they have to settle their problems as well as they can. In order to prevent them from coming straight to the Cabinet with their troubles, and to secure the maximum coordination, those five bodies are further coordinated by a co-ordination committee. This consists of the chairman of each of those committees, headed by the former civil servant mentioned previously—Sir John Anderson. He was one of our best civil servants, recruited in terms of a liberal education from one of the older universities, who made a great mark at the Home Office and who later became Governor of Bengal, came back and retired from Civil Service, and has been taken up by the political side of our government. His first job was the planning of civil defense. Since that time he has been made one of Mr. Churchill's right-hand men.

All questions of production, imports, supplies, home policy, and the rest are co-ordinated by the integrating committee before they get to the Cabinet in order to avoid waste of time. It has been an instruction by Mr. Churchill to these officials to try to settle matters among themselves, so that the Cabinet itself will not be cluttered up by many difficulties causing a retardation of the war efforts. In an effort to do even better, Lord Beaverbrook was recently taken away from the Ministry of Aircraft Production, which he had administered with signal success since June, 1940. He was made Minister of State, without a special department but with the task of coordinating and settling matters of priority.

Operating with the system is a kind of bureau, or secretariat, of economists and

public administrators who see all the cabinet papers that go between the departments and the war Cabinet. The business of this bureau is to review the issues as they see them in those papers and carry their recommendations directly to the chairman of the coordinating committee. As soon as they find, for example, that certain supplies are getting low and need replenishing, the secretariat approaches Sir John Anderson with its facts and suggestions long before the individual departments would get to know it.

Constantly stimulating this organization is the action of Parliament. There is not a day that this body does not make some minister or under-minister feel that his last hour in politics has come unless he can make a better showing. They have maintained a very careful watch on the capacities of individual ministers, and have brought about several changes in leadership.

INCREASES IN THE NUMBER OF GOVERNMENTAL PERSONNEL

THIS war organization vitally depends for its efficiency upon the civil service. It is interesting to consider how the employees of the central government have fulfilled their war-time tasks. In the first place, the civil service has increased substantially, although the exact numbers of the increase are not known publicly. We may guess that there has been an increase of ten to fifteen per cent on the 500,000 normally employed. This may appear a surprisingly small number considering the magnitude of the British war effort, which consumes an expenditure of over four billion pounds per year compared with the round figure of one billion in peace time. In relation to the increase in expenditure, there has been a very large increase in the total number of employees carrying out some government task or other. But the large increase has occurred in the service of the local authorities, who administer the several defense services, and in the fighting personnel of the Army, Navy, and Air Force.

THE increase in the central government staffs has occurred in the administrative, professional, technical and clerical classes, and the numbers suggested above probably come near to the truth. It is a large number to assimilate, and the assimilation has been the more difficult because the entrants consist in many cases of businessmen and academic experts in clerical and statistical staffs who have entered the public service from the entirely different enterprise and discipline of business and university life. To this matter we return later.

The increase is in part limited to certain departments. For example, the Ministry of Home Security, formerly the Home Office, has increased its staff. The Board of Trade has done so in order to cope with wartime import and export licenses and the regulation of price controls established by the law for the control of profiteering, etc. Probably the chief part of the increase has occurred in departments which are entirely new. These are the Ministries of Economic Warfare, Information, Aircraft Production, Supply, Food, Shipping, and the secretariat to the coordinating committee of the minister responsible for home and economic policy.

CENTRAL PERSONNEL REGISTER ESTABLISHED

BEFORE the war began, it was foreseen that the government would have to call upon the professions and industry for certain highly skilled labor, and that it might be impossible to continue the procedure for recruitment to the civil service by competitive examination conducted by the Civil Service Commission.

The government accordingly established the central register some months before the war, after consulting an advisory council representing the universities, the professional and technical institutions, the learned societies, the government departments concerned, and the British Confederation of Employees. A central register was set up and volunteers made their offers of service through the medium of the professional and technical institutions who circularized their

members with the Minister's appeal. This register was originated and is administered by the Minister of Labor and National Service.

Besides the aforementioned procedure for securing volunteers, individual applications were entertained and examined by committees of the advisory council. The register has professional, technical, administrative, and business management sections. Something like 50 per cent of the numbers applying were enrolled. Altogether, until the present, something like 100,000 names were put onto the register and were sorted into about seventy-five main classifications and over 700 subclassifications. The main purpose of the register is not to find jobs for men, but men for the jobs; and the intention was that government departments and other bodies engaged in governmental work of a rather direct kind should have access to the register.

THERE were complaints that some government departments departed from the government's policy that the central register should normally be the sole medium for recruiting temporary staffs. In fact, the departments used the register as intended, excepting that, in the very early stages of the war, some departments hastened to fill their establishments as planned before the war began, calling in men and women whose particular experience had brought them to their notice. Then again, staffs were from time to time needed in circumstances of extreme urgency and the central register was not used. Sometimes, where its forms were adhered to, they may have been substantially violated because a department desiring to employ certain persons and having therefore virtually made the appointments, would then request the persons to register themselves with the central register.

Some of these deviations from the standard practice deservedly caused criticism, since academic friends, relatives, and other social connections tended to secure a priority of attention and employment. This practice

was stopped by the determined opposition of the civil service associations; and Parliament, partly at their instigation and partly of its own initiative, spoke on this matter to the Government very drastically.

Altogether, the central register has accounted for an employment by government departments of about ten per cent of the number on the register. Those who have inquired into the working of the central register make certain suggestions for the effective operation of such a system. They are these:

1. The departments must be highly specific in their requirements.
2. Departments must be very careful not to appoint highly qualified technicians to positions which require mainly administrative abilities.
3. Departmental requirements in terms of age must not be too rigid.
4. There must be an approximation of the salary offered by the department to that which the applicant has been obtaining already.
5. The notification of appointments by departments must be prompt in order to avoid hampering the work of providing candidates for other appointments.

COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS SUSPENDED

AS FORSEEN the staff of the Civil Service Commission itself was needed for war work, and the conditions of a lightning war by air attack put an enormous responsibility on any government which should propose assembled examinations in London or any of the bigger provincial centers. Not only would the government have been held responsible for the safety of the candidates, but the scripts written by them and the marks would have needed special safeguarding under conditions where mail boxes were liable to destruction by bombs.

There was for some months criticism of the government's decision by civil service associations and in Parliament, but since war assumed a more fierce character, the general wisdom of the present system is

accepted, although with some misgiving. The misgiving is natural for two reasons. Wherever a traditional safeguard like the Civil Service Commission is set aside, there may be, and indeed there were, a few persons ready to take advantage of the opening for a career for their friends.

Secondly, there are thousands of young people who have looked forward to that annual opportunity of entry into a civil service career but the war-time system takes recruits on a temporary basis only. Thus all the problems of a regular career in the civil service are put off for these youngsters until after the war. At the same time war-time itself is one of insecurity, for any particular branch of the work might be dissolved any day, a possibility which became a reality in the Ministry of Information and in some branches of the Ministry of Economic Warfare, where trade between the countries of Europe no longer came within the control of Great Britain.

Thus, the civil service recruitment of the war period is on a temporary basis, and is in the hands of the Ministry of Labor and National Service, acting through the central register. For the subordinate types of work, recruitment is through the Employment Exchanges of the Ministry of Labor, while the establishment offices of each department make the selection from the applicants available through these two sources.

Men under 25 are not retained in the service when called up for military duty. Army pay is made up in civil service pay. Seniority rules are suspended, and this affects the positions attained by promotion by those employees who remain; they are all in an acting capacity in all but the lowest classes.

WAR-TIME CONDITIONS OF WORK

IT MAY be worth while to turn to the conditions of work. Civil servants knew that they could not escape from the hardships of modern totalitarian war, nor would they wish to do less than any other section of the population. Indeed, almost at the out-

break of the war, the Staff Side of the National Whitley Council made what is known as the "Hours' Gesture," that is, they promised the government all their help without too exacting a consideration of the hours and conditions of work.

Indeed, their condition has been hard. In the first place, the government needed more space for new administrative developments in London and required a dispersion of offices in relation to the danger of bombing. It evacuated some of the government departments, at least in part. For example, Board of Education staffs, taxation staffs, Somerset House (wills and company records), the Ministry of Health and others were sent away to the provinces. The government had certainly foreseen this problem and had earmarked premises like hotels and schools to accommodate the coming staffs.

No one can say, however, that this was a satisfactory job from the standpoint of accommodations, furniture, lighting, or the billeting of the officers, many of whom were women who had been used to living at home with their families. The government had to compete with the evacuees for air raid precaution purposes and with the army for billets, and civil servants had generally a hard time until they settled down. It was in any case a hardship to uproot themselves suddenly from London or the suburbs, where they had their settled lives and friends. This was accepted with fortitude, but fortitude was needed.

PROBLEMS OF ADJUSTMENT

TWO questions here arose, one the problem of special allowance for billet expense, and the other the question of special leave for periodic visits by employees to their homes. In the course of some months these two matters were settled by negotiation between the staff and official side. Married officers received special allowances varying with whether their families stayed in their homes or moved with the officer. The cost of the family's travel and the furniture removal cost were also payable.

The billet allowances were made to vary with continuing liabilities, and these allowances were available for all civil servants, both married and unmarried. An additional cash allowance was awarded to lowly-paid unmarried officers. Special arrangements were made to enable those unmarried and formerly living with parents to continue their contribution to them. Officials also get two rounds trips and three single trips home a year free.

There are still some complaints concerning the premises in which work is done and where, owing to the pressure of work and the possibility of being caught in an air raid, the civil servant may have to sleep in a not too comfortable bed.

Another question which arose was the problem of loss of work. The normal working week of a civil servant is 42 hours, with half-holidays on Saturdays subject to the exigencies of the service. Thereafter, overtime is payable (time and a quarter week days, and time and a half Sundays), or, in lieu of this, leave may be granted within a short time after the overtime has been worked if this is feasible. The Saturday half-holiday privilege was withdrawn, though it was agreed by the Whitley Council that leave would be given, if possible, without requiring long hours or other days of work.

A considerable increase in overtime began to appear in some departments. The Treasury did not like the rising costs, and proposed that officers should be compelled to take time off in lieu of overtime pay. However, officials were more inclined to ask for pay than leave; in wartime they preferred some extra income. The civil service associations did not like this preference for overtime and cash, and the Treasury, for its part, wished to reduce the rate of overtime pay. The Civil Service Arbitration Tribunal (on which I sat for this case) agreed that departments should be able to compel a civil servant to take leave in lieu of overtime pay, but refused to reduce the overtime rate on the grounds that no other industry had been thus adversely affected by the war.

MORE complicated matters have arisen, however, owing to the blackout, the difficulties of getting home, and the irregular times at which the civil servants have to work in order to cope with their duties under wartime conditions. There is the question of getting home before dark, "sleeping in," and taking work home. As was said by the Treasury in a circular published by the National Whitley Council Staff Side, "As it may be difficult for staff to do much of the morning journey to their offices or their evening journey in darkness and as a certain amount of interruption by day raids will become unavoidable notwithstanding the latest arrangements for taking to shelter, it is clear that output will be maintained with resort to expediences of a far-reaching character."

Some of these expedients were these: There is protecting accommodation in offices, with sleeping facilities so as to allow a rota system of long and short day attendance. For example, a proportion of the staff work an eleven-hour day, sleeping that night at the office, and are thus available for an early shift next morning; then they leave early that day and do a short day on the day after. Then the rota recommences. This has to be varied according to the hours of daylight and the amount of available accommodation; furthermore it must be used in order to reduce transport compensation.

Washing facilities, etc., have had to be installed by the Office of Works; furthermore, meals may have to be taken away from home on the long day's attendance, and, where officers are required to "sleep in," an allowance has had to be made. It has been necessary to provide canteen arrangements in situations better protected than the usual luncheon clubs. Where the rota system has been impossible, a shorter day has been worked six days a week, reducing the luncheon interval to half an hour, in which case people have usually brought a desk lunch with them. In other cases volunteers for extra duty have had to be on hand on a week-to-week basis.

SUNDAY has had to be regarded as a normal working day, although every attempt is made to work only with a nucleus staff and those who use their Sunday are allowed one other day off in seven. In some cases home work is permitted in lieu of attendance, "subject to suitable control." These arrangements are flexible and since, as the circular said, the paramount consideration being to get the work done, they were proposed instead of any fixed time table applicable to all.

Some account has had to be taken of the time spent in air raid shelters. In spite of a roof spotter system which has abolished the need for staff to take cover the moment the ordinary warning is heard, time spent in air raid shelters is reckoned as official attendance if it falls within the regular hours of duty to which the officer is conditioned. Some arrangements, of course, have had to be made for compassionate leave, where an officer's house has been demolished or severely damaged by enemy action, and there are many other compensations to make up for the inevitable strain to which civil servants are subjected, whether under attack or while acting on A.R.P. or on guard duties.

REVISION OF PAY RATES

SIDE by side with the question of hours and the wear and tear of the daily conditions of work, there is the question of pay. The civil service was almost the last of the great bodies of workers in the country to approach the government for an improvement of their remuneration because of the rise in the cost of living produced by the war. There has been no claim by the civil service for higher pay on the grounds that the government needs its services more than in normal times, although that kind of claim is not entirely absent from the argument put forward by some branches of workers and of entrepreneurs doing government work. When, however, the cost of living began to rise seriously and other sections of the working class obtained raises in pay, the civil

service associations, particularly those of the middle ranks, asked the government to consider the institution of a cost-of-living bonus, somewhat similar to that prevailing during the last war.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, Lord Simon who had not been so adamant with other industries, became peremptory and even peevish when dealing with the claim of his own servants, no doubt convinced of their professional long-suffering. But it was impossible for the government to maintain their position without any compensation at all and in May, 1940, an agreement was reached, not on a sliding scale, but on a flat scale of bonus. (The government refused the sliding-scale system on the grounds given by the Royal Commission of 1929-31—that civil service remuneration should reflect the long-term trend of wages in outside industry.) The bonus went up to five per cent per week on weekly salaries up to four pounds fifteen a week (about twenty dollars per week at current rates) in London, with corresponding equivalents in the provinces.

In spite of this compensation, attention could not cease at this point on the question of wages, and the staff side continued to press the government for a further bonus. Negotiations took place (not always in a pleasant atmosphere) with Sir Kingsley Wood, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and finally the government made another compensation. Again, however, it was but a single award, and not one liable to move automatically with the cost of living. The civil servants themselves are not already content with the result, but on the whole they prefer to regard it as a not-unwelcome success, and one which may well be repeated if the situation should call for it.

The changes may be summarized as follows: ¹

¹ Editor's Note: The bonus amounts are shown in shillings and pence. At the current rates, a shilling is roughly the equivalent of 20 cents in United States currency, and a penny is approximately 1½ cents. A weekly bonus of one shilling six pence (¾) is thus approximately equivalent to 30 cents. The English pound-sterling (£) is currently quoted at about \$4.00. An annual salary of £250 is approximately \$1000.00.

AMOUNT OF BONUS

	Old	New
Under 18, boys and girls.....	1/6	3/-
18-21, boys and girls.....	2/6	5/-
21 and over:		
Men: Under 40/- per week.....	3/-	10/-
40/- to 50/- per week.....	4/-	10/-
Over 50/-	5/-	10/-
Women: Under 40/- per week.....	3/-	7/6
40/- to 50/- per week.....	4/-	7/6
Over 50/-	5/-	7/6

"CEILING"

Old Arrangements

Bonus payable to officers whose remuneration was at:-		
London	Intermediate Towns	Provinces
95/- or less	91/- or less	87/- or less

New Arrangements

London: Intermediate and Provinces
95/- or less will qualify for full bonus of 10/- (adult men) and 7/6 (adult women).

Example:

Provinces	Old Bonus	New Bonus
87/- per week.....	5/-	10/- (men) 7/6 (women)
88/- " "	4/-	
89/- " "	3/-	
90/- " "	2/-	
91/- " "	1/-	
92/- " "	Nil	
93/- " "	Nil	
94/- " "	Nil	
95/- " "	Nil	

NEW FIELD OF BONUS

Above £250 and up to £350 (men) and £300 (women) bonus will be payable at the rate of 5/- for men and 4/- for women.

The purpose of the escalator arrangement is what we would call "marginal relief."

On remuneration immediately above £250 the amount of bonus payable is that required to ensure that an officer is not worse off than he or she would be if the remuneration were £250 precisely—with, of course, an overriding minimum bonus of 5/- (men) and 4/- (women) (because in the zone from £250 to £350 (men) and £300 (women) bonus of these amounts is payable).

At the upper limits (£350 men and £300 women) the same principle of marginal relief applies. Thus:-

Salary point	Weekly bonus to men	Weekly bonus to women
£250	10/-	7/6
£255	9/-	5/6
£260	6/-	4/-
£270	5/-	4/-
and then	bonus remains steady until:-	
£300	5/-	4/-
£305	5/-	2/-
£307	5/-	1/-
£310	5/-	Nil
£350	5/-	Nil
£355	3/-	Nil
£360	1/-	Nil

WAR TAXES

WHILE considering the subject of civil service pay, attention may be devoted to the extent to which the civil servant contributes to the cost of the war. He, like other citizens, has to bear a part of the tremendous cost, and what this must mean can be shown by two or three typical examples. Let us take the case of a single person earning \$2,500 a year. He will pay \$780 in income tax alone. A single man earning \$5,000 a year will pay \$1,900 in income tax alone. A married person with two children, earning \$2,500 a year, will pay \$380 income tax; a married man with two children, earning \$5,000, will pay \$1,510 income tax alone.

These civil servants, like other citizens, participate in the government's forced saving scheme, so that the single person at \$2,500 a year will get as a postwar credit of about \$130 for each year. The married person earning \$5,000 will get a postwar credit of \$215; while the married person with two children, earning \$2,500, will have a postwar credit of \$145, and the married person making \$5,000 gets \$240 as his postwar credit.

It may be inferred from the foregoing that the joint negotiating machinery, the Whitley Councils, National and Departmental, have by no means slackened in their effort or influence. It was conceded by the Treasury that, in spite of the urgencies of the war, staff consultation should proceed. But Emergency Committees, smaller than the usual Councils, were formed in order to facilitate quick decisions. The National Committee has done remarkably good work in the directions already outlined, and within the Departments the various difficulties involved in evacuation, billeting, air raid warnings, and such, have been composed.

The staff associations, moreover, have taken the lead in proposing reforms tending to increased efficiency, and have been very effective in the maintenance of morale. They have done much towards winning the

war. They keep their journals going, whip up their membership, develop their scientific interests in their special branches, protect their interests, and sustain the war effort. They have continually pressed for the revision of the Trades Disputes Act of 1927, which denies to civil service organizations the right to affiliate with the Trade Union Congress, and it appears that they may secure their demand. Mr. W. J. Brown, Secretary of the Civil Service Clerical Association, an outstanding organizer in the history of British Civil Service organizations, has been a magnificent asset to the Ministry of Information; his civic broadcasts have earned him the wrath of Lord Haw-Haw.

GENERAL ATTITUDE OF CIVIL SERVANTS

THE attitude of the civil service to its work and its efficiency, subjects to which I am about to turn, may at once be testified by the letter which the Staff Side, National Whitley Council, sent to the Prime Minister on May 15, 1940; and the message of the Chairman of the Staff Side of May 25, 1940:

Sir,

While the Staff Side of the Civil Service National Whitley Council have to concern themselves very largely in war time as in peace, with the conditions of employment of civil servants, they endeavour always to be mindful of the obligation that they owe the nation as the representatives and spokesmen of one of the services of the Crown.

Being specially conscious of this responsibility in the present grave crisis in the fortunes of our country, they have requested me to convey to you an assurance of the loyalty and devotion to duty of the 400,000 civil servants for whom they have the honour to speak, and of their own desire to use all the influence they properly may to ensure the most intensive and efficient participation by the Service in the war effort.

They trust that this affirmation of loyalty and support among the many which have been forthcoming during these last few days will help to encourage you and others who carry such heavy burdens as leaders of the nation at this critical time.

I am, Sir, Your Obedient Servant,
(Signed) A. J. T. Day, Chairman

The message of the Chairman of the Staff Side read as follows:

In the crisis now upon us—the gravest in all the long history of our race—there can be no room in any of our minds for thoughts of personal or sectional interests and privileges. One thing alone matters: to avert the dangers now threatening and to carry the national

cause to a successful issue. To achieve this, our compatriots in the armed forces are giving all they have to give; munition workers at home are toiling to the limit; and the same wholehearted endeavour is being put forth by workers of all kinds up and down the country. In this crescendo of effort the Civil Service has not been, and will not be, behind the rest. Since war broke out, and in many Departments long before that, it has been working hard and long in the common cause. But the time has come to intensify these already strenuous exertions by using that reserve of energy which may help to turn the scale between disaster and triumph.

The National Staff Side, as the spokesmen of the Service, have assured the Government that all staffs are anxious and willing to do anything in their power to meet the present situation, and that they will, cheerfully and willingly, respond to any further demands that it may be necessary to make on their time and energy. The Government have taken the Staff Side at their word, and are arranging as an emergency measure for a minimum working week of at least 48 hours, and for increases in some cases up to 54. There are, of course, cases where this limit has already been reached and even passed.

Moreover, as a gesture of sacrifice at a time when maximum sacrifices are being demanded of other sections of the community, the Staff Side have taken the responsibility of volunteering a temporary modification in the overtime arrangements for 42-hour classes, so that within a limit of 44 hours a week members of these classes may have the opportunity, while this exceptionally grave crisis lasts, of giving a few extra hours to the national effort without desire or expectation of reward.

The British Civil Service, as we all are proud to believe, is the finest in the world—the finest in efficiency and integrity, and the finest, too, as it is now showing, in spirit and temper and the will to serve. It will assuredly rise to the height of the present occasion and toil without ceasing until success is achieved.

CRITICISM AND REBUTTALS

PERHAPS the efficiency of the service may best be discussed on the basis of the main criticisms which have been made of it. Criticisms have come from two sources: the businessman (the "dollar-a-year man"); and academic critics and publicists. These are not quite of the same order of objectiveness, so they may be treated separately. The businessman has complained (and I'm thinking mainly of the full-dress attack by Lord Perry, a former dollar-a-year man in the Ministry of Food and Manager of the Ford automobile company in England) that the civil service is slow, routinized, and without initiative. He thought that this was so because its own private fortunes were not bound up with the success of the policy for which it was responsible. He observed that some of the departments had suffered several changes

of minister during the war, where the suspicion of incompetence had been justified, but that civil servants could only be removed by death.

This is a familiar criticism and it is not itself unsuspect. The answer to it was given by Lord Simon and Lord Robert Cecil in the debate referred to (House of Lords, February 19, 1941). Lord Simon observed that he had made a great fortune in his legal practice by defending businessmen from the incompetence of each other, where they could not agree on what they had meant in drawing up contracts, or the terms of deliveries of goods. But civil servants could not, with their responsibilities to the public, act in such a slipshod way. Their contracts had to be clear; their deliveries had to be made; hence they properly took thought before they acted. And, he asserted, the civil service had made a magnificent contribution to the conduct of the war.

Lord Robert Cecil brought out the important, and, in fact, the crucial factor in the situation, namely that it wasn't for civil servants to take the initiative. Law and administration could only proceed on the basis of cabinet responsibility. Where the administration had been slow it had been rather the fault of the minister and Parliament and not of the civil servants, for the British system of responsible government requires expert civil servants and talented dynamic ministers; and in the years before the war and in the first months of it, the latter condition had not been fulfilled.

AS FOR the academic criticisms, they are these. First, the civil service was over-obsessed by its procedures for securing responsibility at a time when they might well be discarded in order to get things done more rapidly. Along this same line, there has been special criticism of the too-careful obedience of all the departmental instructions, a criticism of the too-careful scrutiny of proposals for expenditures by accounting officers, and the appointment of additional staffs or the acquisition of additional ap-

paratus. There is complaint also of the pedantic maintenance of files and registries of correspondence.

To these criticisms the civil servant himself answers—though in a suppliant rather than in defiant vein—that again and again Parliamentary committees which have inquired into administration and expenditure have proposed, not a decrease, but an increase in governmental and treasury control of the work of civil servants. If this is so, it is essential that the civil servant behave so that he can incur no blame from either of these sources. They point out that if they did not observe the instructions, if they did not maintain the files and the registries of correspondence, some one person, perhaps Lord Perry himself, might be aggrieved over some trivial incident of administration and become vociferous over the incompetence of the civil service.

Secondly, there has been a complaint that, owing to the pre-war practice whereby the Treasury had practically a paramount say in the choice of the high officials of other departments, there has been a damping down of departmental initiative in timidity before possible Treasury reaction. And it took time, also, for the Treasury to have its mind liberalized to war needs so that there was substituted in it the psychology of the modern war of speed in place of its superhuman meticulous care for the minutia of regulations regarding expenditures and establishments—the “Treasury mind.” Contract procedures and quality specifications, for example, were not loosened quickly to meet the war of speed.

THE third criticism has been that pre-war methods of selecting the British civil service, while providing the service with splendid minds, zeal, honesty, and efficiency, had not sufficiently produced an awareness of the modern economic, social, and statistical sciences. Although this was not decisively damaging or anywhere near it, it was nevertheless a delaying factor in civil service initiative.

Fourthly, several of the highest officers had before the war, with the best intentions, accumulated a large number of responsibilities. These were so many, that when the war came they did not quickly enough devolve some of the less important ones and assume some of the more important new tasks. Thus they were not dynamic enough in the new situation.

Fifthly, there was for too long a continuation of the practice of circulating files of business for memoranda thereon to very junior ranks, thus wasting time.

Sixthly, we may add as a criticism of our own that, whereas in a country like England the total labor available for the present urgent task of survival is small, it is all the more necessary to reconsider the place in the hierarchy of each person already in it. If there is a case for severity in demotions and audacity in promotions in peace time, this is intensified in war time. A great deal of quality is lost owing to the want of ruthless severity in this respect.

Seventhly, there has been adverse comment by left-wing critics of the fact that various controls (for example, favor distribution and shipping management) have been directed by businessmen recruited from the very industries and firms to be controlled. I see no way out of doing this. These men know the ropes; but the principles are laid down by the Government, and they have to obey.

Finally, there have been legitimate criticisms of the waste of labor power where civil servants have volunteered to be transferred from their departments to others to meet immediate labor shortages. There is evidence that they have not always been used to the best advantage.

REMEDIAL MEASURES

ATTEMPTS at overcoming some of the deficiencies are discernible in two Treasury Circulars, of which Mr. Churchill is the author. His vigor, character, bearing, and drive have, indeed, made a great impression on the Service. One cir-

cular to all departmental officials reads:

Sir,—I am directed by the Lords Commissioners of His Majesty's Treasury to inform you that the Prime Minister had directed that it is essential in present circumstances that all Departments and all branches of the Service should take every possible step to avoid administrative delays, to accelerate decisions and to expedite executive action.

Since the war there has been a noticeable speeding-up of public business, but to-day's needs demand that more must be done; I am to ask, therefore, that this matter may be given further urgent consideration as regards business both within Departments and between Departments.

The following possibilities should, in particular, be explored:

(1) Simplification of procedure, e.g., in putting to tender and placing of contracts, accounting methods, etc.

(2) Further development of oral discussion in place of written minutes, the final conclusions alone being recorded.

(3) Expedition of action when agreement on policy has been reached, e.g. on the strength of oral instructions, subsequently confirmed in writing if necessary.

(4) Devolution of responsibility and authority where this has not already been done. Where matters must be submitted to higher authority, it should be the endeavour to put forward a specific recommendation rather than a mere analysis of the position.

(5) Consideration wherever practicable of a topic affecting a number of branches or sub-departments simultaneously rather than consecutively.

(6) Reduction in the number of branches or officers to whom matters are referred, unless such branches or officers have a real interest in the question under consideration.

As you are no doubt aware, special arrangements have been made in a number of cases to expedite consultation between the Treasury and the Departments so that authority for expenditure may rapidly be given. Their Lordships will be glad to explore with Departments any cases in which it is felt that the existing arrangements for obtaining financial approval, whether within Departments or from the Treasury, can be further improved. Officers of the Treasury will be ready at once to meet representatives of your Department with a view to discussing these arrangements. This Circular should be brought at once to the notice of all responsible officers in your Department.

Mr. Churchill has also sent to his colleagues in the Government, and through them, to all departments, a circular² insisting on brevity and simplicity in official reports. What the Prime Minister calls "officialese jargon" is to be scrapped in war time.

"To do our work," he said, "we all have to read a mass of papers. Nearly all of them are too long. This wastes time, while energy has to be spent in looking for the essential points."

² The content of this circular has been summarized in the above from newspaper clippings in the possession of the author.

All concerned should see that their reports are shorter. The aim should be, he says, reports which set out the main points in a series of short, crisp paragraphs. If a report relies on detailed analysis of some complicated factors, or on statistics, these should be set out in an appendix. "Often the occasion is best met by submitting not a full-dress report, but an aide-memoire consisting of headings only, which can be expanded orally if needed."

It is war time, he points out, and the civil servant has his own particular field for the exercise of heroism. Some indication of the great sacrifice that the orthodox civil servant is called upon to make is given when Mr. Churchill says, "Let us have an end to such phrases as these: 'It is also of importance to bear in mind the following considerations . . .,' or 'Consideration should be given to the possibility of carrying into effect . . .'. Most of these wooly phrases are mere padding, which can be left out altogether or replaced by a single word. Let us not shrink from using the short expressive phrase, even if it is conversational."

CONCLUSION

ALL in all, I think it must be said that the civil service of Great Britain has played, and is playing, a notable and magnificent part in the whole of the war effort. We admit deficiencies, but such deficiencies must be taken in the general perspective of the whole war effort. Public officers and employees have borne their burdens as citizens, and their special burdens as civil servants with dignity and constancy. At Whitehall, the center of British administration, and throughout the country down to its smallest rural extremities, they have in the actual conditions of the battlefield itself put science, vigor, and order into the superhuman and quite unprecedented task of total war. And they have done this without seeking or achieving the subjection of the citizen, or the feeling, common to totalitarian states, that he is a pawn in their hands.

The Work of Boards of United States Civil Service Examiners

L. A. MOYER

THE United States Civil Service Commission is recruiting thousands of semiskilled, skilled, professional, and technical workers for employment in national-defense agencies. Its success in securing these men promptly has been due, in great measure, to the efficient work of the boards of United States civil service examiners which represent it in nearly 5,000 cities and in more than 150 federal establishments. Their work enables the Commission to understand and meet promptly the personnel needs of the federal field service, and to carry out its local recruiting and testing through persons who are familiar with local conditions and problems. Acting under the immediate supervision of the Commission's district managers, these boards form a trained, flexible, and coordinated organization for securing qualified men quickly to fill defense positions.

Boards of United States civil service examiners are of two types: (1) local boards proper (referred to in this article as "local boards"), which are organized in each city in which examinations are held; and (2) rating or establishment boards, which are organized at each of certain federal establishments, such as navy yards, arsenals, reclamation projects, engineer headquarters, etc., where the number of employees in trades and skilled occupations warrants. There are about 5,000 local boards and about 150 rating boards. The former maintain information centers and conduct as-

sembled examinations; the latter announce examinations for mechanical-trades and similar positions at their establishments, rate papers for these examinations in cooperation with the Commission's district office, establish registers for these positions, and certify eligibles therefrom to local appointing officers upon the latter's request.

SUPERVISION OF LOCAL AND RATING BOARDS

BOTH local and rating boards are under the immediate supervision of the Commission's district managers, who have their headquarters in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Washington, Atlanta, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Paul, St. Louis, New Orleans, Seattle, San Francisco, and Denver. Positions in the field service which are regularly filled through certificates issued by district managers, or by rating boards under their jurisdiction, are said to be under the "district system." This system applies to the great majority of classified field positions, including those in the trades and skilled occupations which are so important to national rearmament, and may be extended to others by the Commission with the consent of the head of the agency concerned. Because of the defense emergency, there is an increasing tendency to decentralize many registers for field positions which have hitherto been maintained in the Commission's central office.

Local and rating boards receive instructions from the district manager personally, through circular letters and correspondence, and through the visits of special representa-

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tives. To meet the heavy demands of the national-defense program, special representatives have been permanently stationed at many rating boards, with authority to act for the district manager in reviewing ratings, passing on promotions, handling appeals, and other matters, many of which were previously referred to the district office or the Commission's central office for action.

The central office of the Commission has prepared a number of manuals and informational and instructional pamphlets for the use of local and rating boards, and gives them news about civil-service developments through a monthly house organ, the *Letter to the Commission's Local Representatives*. It may at any time give them direct instructions to perform some duty.

LOCATION AND ORGANIZATION OF LOCAL AND RATING BOARDS

THE local boards, as distinguished from rating boards, have offices in each city in the United States (except the district-office cities) where there is a post office of the first or second class. There are also local boards in some smaller cities. The boards usually have their headquarters in the post office. They are composed of federal employees who are nominated for this work by the head of the federal office concerned. After conferring, either personally or through a representative, with the nominating officer and the nominee, the district manager transmits the name of the nominee, with his recommendation, to the Commission. Pending the Commission's action, he authorizes the immediate assignment of the nominee to service with the board.

No board may be composed solely of adherents of one political party if other persons are available and competent to serve. Temporary employees and persons who are not employees of the Federal government are ineligible for membership. Persons serving in excepted positions may be considered for membership only when the assignment of additional board members is

necessary and competent classified employees are not available.

RATING boards are composed of the district manager or his representative and of civilians employed at the establishment served by the board. The latter are appointed in the same manner as members of the other local boards. Their appointment is subject to a personal investigation of character and loyalty.

The responsible head of a local or rating board is generally its secretary. Other board members are expected to render him all assistance he may need in the performance of the Commission's work. In the navy yard service, rating boards are known as "labor boards" and the employee who corresponds to the secretary is called a "recorder."

Board members do not receive additional compensation for board service, but are allowed time to devote to the Commission's work as a part of their regular duties. They have displayed a gratifying zeal, loyalty, and interest in their work. Many of them have acquired such an understanding of personnel work and displayed such ability as to advance to progressively higher positions.

ACTIVITIES OF LOCAL BOARDS

LOCAL boards, as distinguished from rating boards, are primarily information and examining centers. However, the Commission has made extensive use of them in canvassing their respective areas to obtain lists of prospective employees for national-defense positions. They have been instructed to report the names of any persons residing in their communities who are qualified and available for employment in critical defense occupations. For this purpose, they keep in touch with local manufacturing plants, local employment offices, labor unions, vocational schools, chambers of commerce and other civic organizations, and other sources of supply. They interview qualified persons and encourage them to make themselves available for Government employment as a patriotic service.

Among the principal activities of local boards are the following:

Publicizing examination announcements. Announcements of examinations, with any necessary instructions as to publicity, are sent to local secretaries by the district manager or the Commission. The secretary keeps a permanent, complete file of these announcements, which is available for inspection by the public. He posts on a bulletin board near his office lists of pending examinations, individual announcements of examinations for positions in the immediate locality, and a "consolidated list" of field examinations throughout the nation for which there is a particularly urgent need of applicants. He also secures the cooperation of local newspapers, and furnishes them with news items and news releases on examinations as they are announced. By clipping published notices of examinations, and other newspaper or magazine material relating to civil service, he keeps the Commission informed as to the amount of examination publicity obtained through the press.

Board members are encouraged to give radio talks on civil service, or to speak on this subject before educational institutions, civic organizations, clubs, and other gatherings, using material which has been prepared by the Commission's Information and Recruiting Division or approved by the district manager. The Commission has made extensive use of the radio in publicizing the most important national-defense examinations, particularly those for which intensive recruiting was necessary. Many local secretaries have participated in these broadcasts.

Assisting applicants to file application forms. All local boards distribute applications for nation-wide examinations and for examinations which are to be held within the area in which the board is located. Board members are expected to aid in executing applications if requested to do so, and to help applicants, competitors, and others to understand the need for completeness and accuracy in filling out the various official forms required of them.

Answering inquiries concerning civil-service examinations and civil-service procedure. The board secretary is expected to answer as fully as practicable the inquiries of those who call at his office or write him for information regarding civil-service matters. In cases where he is unable to give complete information in response to an inquiry, he forwards it to the district manager without delay. Inquiries about civil-service positions in any specific navy yard are referred to the recorder of the labor board at the yard. Inquiries about skilled trades and laborer positions in arsenals, engineer headquarters, reclamation projects, and other large manufacturing and construction projects, are referred to the rating board secretaries at those establishments.

Conducting assembled examinations. Upon being notified of the date on which the board is to conduct an examination and of the number of applicants authorized to appear, its secretary makes arrangements to obtain a suitable examination room if one has not already been provided in the locality. On the examination date, the examiner in charge, who is either the secretary or a board member thoroughly trained in conducting examinations, opens the sealed package of examination papers in the presence of the competitors and distributes the preliminary material. Before the examination begins, he reads to the competitors instructions concerning the number of sheets to be issued, the time to be allowed, the manner of filling in the blanks, absence from the examination room, questioning the examiners, and penalties for collusion. He then issues the examination sheets in order and conducts the test. The examiner reports to the Commission any cases of collusion, or any other irregularities which may arise. At the close of the examination, he fingerprints the competitors for identification purposes.

After the examination is over, the examiner arranges the examination material and returns it to the office which is to rate the papers. Papers in assembled examinations are rated in the Examining Division

of the Commission's central office in Washington, or, in the case of decentralized examinations, in the office of the district manager.

Local boards also hold noncompetitive examinations when instructed to do so.

Fingerprinting. In addition to fingerprinting competitors in written examinations, local boards fingerprint prospective appointees upon the request of appointing officers. When the fingerprints have been recorded, the secretary forwards the chart promptly to the appointing officer by whom the letter of introduction and authority was written. These fingerprint charts are required of all probational and probational-indefinite appointees to classified positions, and of temporary appointees to national-defense positions. They are checked with the files of the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

Handling clerk-carrier appointments. Examinations for post-office clerk and carrier positions are rated in the district office. The registers are sent to the local secretary at the post office for which the examination was held, or, in some districts, directly to the postmaster. The three highest names on the register constitute a standing certification. In the past, nominations, which are made by the postmaster, have always been acted upon by the district manager, but the Commission has recently authorized district managers to delegate this function to qualified local secretaries.

Other duties. Local boards report to the district manager violations or evasions of the Civil Service Act, rules, or regulations which come to the attention of any of their members. They also make such investigations as are requested by the Commission or the district manager, and perform such other duties as the Commission or the district manager may require.

ACTIVITIES OF RATING BOARDS

UNDER joint regulations adopted by the Commission and the federal agency concerned, rating boards composed of civil-

service examiners, under the immediate supervision of civil-service district managers, have been established at the major field stations of certain services, including navy yards, quartermaster establishments, ordnance establishments, and others. These boards perform many of the same duties as local boards, although they do not conduct assembled examinations and, of course, have nothing to do with clerk-carrier appointments. In addition, they announce examinations for mechanical-trades and similar positions at the local establishment, receive applications therefor, establish registers, and certify eligibles to the local appointing officer. Since most of the critical national-defense positions are of the type for which they announce examinations, the importance of their work cannot be overestimated.

Announcing examinations. Rating boards issue examination announcements only upon authorization of the district manager. The announcements are prepared in the form authorized by the Commission and furnished the board by the district manager. Copies are posted at the headquarters office of the board and at such other places, including the offices of local boards in the vicinity, as will insure reasonable publicity and satisfactory competition. Copies are also sent to persons whose names appear on appropriate mailing lists maintained by the board. Local newspapers are requested to publish examination notices as items of news. When exceptional difficulty in securing qualified applicants is anticipated, the announcement may be placed on the "consolidated list," which is publicized by local boards throughout the nation. Such examinations may also be given radio publicity.

If an examination for one service is expected to be subsequently used by other services, arrangements are made to bring it to the attention of persons whose names appear upon mailing lists maintained by other rating boards in the locality and by the district office. At the same time, each of

these other boards is notified that the register will be used for its service.

The national-defense emergency has resulted in a greatly extended use of "continuously open" examinations. These examinations, which are announced for positions for which there is frequent demand for or an apparent scarcity of eligibles, are open for an indefinite period. When enough qualified eligibles have been obtained to meet the needs of the service, advance notice of close of receipt of applications is given, with the same publicity as was given the original announcement. The use of "continuously open" examinations makes it possible to receive applications at any time, to rate them as soon as received, and to certify eligibles for appointment immediately.

Review of applications. Upon receipt of an application, the board makes a preliminary review to determine whether the applicant appears to meet the minimum requirements for eligibility. Special attention is given to such matters as citizenship, arrest record, and age, as well as to experience. If it is clearly shown by the applicant's own statements that he does not meet the specific requirements prescribed by the announcement, his application is rejected and he is notified of the reasons for such action.

If the applicant appears to meet all requirements, confidential inquiries are sent to at least four persons or firms named in the application. The employers selected for this purpose are those with whom he appears, from his employment history, to have had his best, longest, and most recent experience. At the same time, confidential inquiries or other correspondence are addressed to other available persons who are competent to testify as to his character and ability.

Rating examinations. Ratings in the un-assembled examinations held by rating boards are based either entirely or primarily on the elements of experience and fitness as shown by statements made under oath in the application and by evidence obtained through confidential inquiry or, in some

cases, through personal investigation. The establishment of good character and moral fitness for government employment is necessary for eligibility. In assigning numerical ratings, consideration is given to the date, length, quality, and character of the experience shown. The board uses a rating schedule, prepared by the Commission's central office, which describes the basis for assigning various numerical ratings to different types of experience.

The value of the information obtained through replies to confidential inquiries is determined primarily by the opportunity which the informant has had to observe, in a critical and intelligent way, the skill and ability of the applicant in the occupation sought. The general tone and content of the information thus secured must be such as to establish the good faith and apparent integrity of the applicant in making his claims as to occupational qualifications, and his general good character and moral fitness for government employment. Deductions from the rating are made where this information establishes deficiencies in occupational skill or ability, laziness, carelessness, lack of energy, or the like.

After ratings have been assigned, the rating sheets are initialed by the board members who participated in the rating. Each eligible is notified in writing of the average which he has attained in the examination. Applicants who have been found ineligible are also notified, with the definite reason for their rejection. Those who are dissatisfied with their ratings may obtain further consideration by filing an appeal.

It is sometimes necessary, in emergency cases, to assign final ratings without awaiting the return of confidential inquiries, and to make certification "subject to inquiry." Where the applicant is located in the vicinity of the hiring establishment, the appointing officer is given an opportunity to interview him before tendering appointment, and the Commission's representative at the hiring establishment conducts a local investigation.

Where the applicant is at a distance, and it is necessary to obtain more complete and detailed information about his qualifications, a "spot investigation" of his experience, character, and loyalty is made at the industrial concern where he obtained his major experience. Answers to confidential inquiries are reviewed when received, and if it is shown that the applicant is not of good character, is disloyal, or has intentionally made false statements about material facts, his eligibility is canceled and his removal requested.

Maintaining registers. Rating boards establish and maintain registers in accordance with joint regulations agreed upon by the Commission and the agency for which the board has been established. The district manager is furnished with a copy of the register, or a list of eligibles and their ratings, unless he has authorized the rating board to act for him in auditing appointments and reports of changes. Some rating boards also maintain reemployment, reinstatement, or furlough lists.

Any special qualifications eligibles may possess are indicated on the register. This facilitates the selection from the register, when necessary, of eligibles who possess special qualifications needed for a particular position. These selected eligibles are then certified to the appointing officer in the order in which their names appear on the general register. Such selective certification is made only when its use will not violate the competitive principle, and only when specifically authorized by the regulations or by the district manager. Its use has been much extended as a result of the national-defense program.

Certifying eligibles. When a vacancy occurs or is about to occur in a position under the jurisdiction of a rating board, the nominating or appointing officer requests the board to certify eligibles. He notifies the board of his selection when made and furnishes them with such documents as are prescribed by the department or the Commission. Unless otherwise provided by the

regulations, the board secretary endorses and transmits to the department the nomination form and other forms which the department has prescribed. In many cases, the board secretary has been given authority by his departmental superiors to act for the appointing officer, with a view to the elimination of certain procedural steps in certification and appointment.

Rating boards act for the Commission in most cases involving the rerating of an employee from one position to another under their jurisdiction. They have no such authority, however, with respect to reinstatements (except in certain specified types of cases in the navy yard service) or with respect to transfers from other government agencies.

Authorizing or approving temporary appointments. In determining the extent to which rating boards shall be given authority to approve temporary appointments, the Commission has striven to avoid any danger that they may commit it to the announcement of unnecessary examinations, or that the advantages resulting from the flexibility of the district system may be nullified by failure to resort to registers maintained by the district manager or by other rating boards. Where possible, vacancies in temporary positions are filled by certification from an appropriate register. As a general rule, a board has authority to approve a temporary appointment pending establishment of a suitable register, and to approve temporary appointments for not exceeding three months to positions under its jurisdiction in cases where the work is of such a temporary character that at its completion the services of the temporary employee will no longer be needed. Except in a limited number of cases, all extensions of temporary appointments require the prior approval of the district manager.

Auditing or forwarding reports of changes. Reports of changes in personnel at establishments where rating boards have been established are forwarded by the local department official to the district manager

through the office of the rating board. The board checks the changes reported to make sure that appointments to positions under its jurisdiction were approved by it when made. Where it has acted on noncompetitive cases, the report shows the title, rating, and date of the examination, and the date of approval by the district manager or his representative, in order to facilitate his audit of the action. The board prepares service record cards for appointments to positions under its jurisdiction. The district manager may authorize a board to act for him in checking reports of changes, and to prepare service record cards, not only for appointments to positions under its jurisdiction, but for selections for the establishment that are made from district- or central-office registers.

CONCLUSION

BECAUSE of the thorough training of boards of United States civil service examiners in civil-service procedures and in the principles of the merit system, the United States Civil Service Commission has been able to entrust them with important responsibilities. It has turned over to them such functions as they could exercise independently without impairing the flexibility of the district system; it has withheld from them such powers as could be effectively exercised only by a coordinating body. Its objective has been to deal with as many problems as possible at the spot where they occur, but to keep the entire resources of its nation-wide organization available for use in meeting any emergency, no matter when or where it may arise.

Personnel Administration in the United States Army

PAUL VAN RIPER, JR.

WHILE the imperatives of the national defense program have served to focus the attention of the nation upon Army administration and operations, that phase of military management concerned with personnel administration has gone relatively unnoticed. Perhaps this oversight is the result of a disproportionate attention to more spectacular, if not more important, aspects of military operations. More probably, however, it is a direct result of the fact that, contrary to the condition existing in the field of *civilian* public personnel administration, there exists no general agreement as to the constituent elements of *military* personnel administration. In the Army there is no civil service commission nor legal merit system around which may revolve a centralized personnel program. Even in Army regulations and literature one finds only a loose use of the term *personnel administration* applied with reference to a number of more or less related operations. However, there is some justification for this looseness in terminology. Indeed, to single out certain procedures and label them arbitrarily as the components of military personnel administration is unrealistic. In a broad sense, all Army administration is personnel administration. Despite the fact that modern military tactics use machines and equipment far more than ever before, the human element not only remains but assumes new importance.

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SCOPE OF MILITARY PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

IN ORDER to delimit the scope of the present discussion to manageable proportions, military personnel administration may be said to consist of the organization and procedures necessary to determine army personnel requirements, to obtain personnel to meet those requirements, to place the acquired personnel in appropriate positions, and to provide for their promotion, transfer and replacement, compensation, separation, and retirement under conditions of war and peace.

However, a definition of military personnel administration does not alone solve all the problems involved in presenting a clear picture of so complex a topic in a limited discussion.¹ It is desirable, for example, to explore briefly the matter of general military organization and organization terminology in order to show adequately certain relationships and problems inherent in American military operation. One must discover the "organization" and the "procedures" to which reference was made in the foregoing definition. Many aspects of both must be omitted or, at best, mentioned only briefly and generally. Should this description—there is little evaluation or criticism—make clear some of the principal elements in American military personnel administration—

¹ The advice and criticism of Major Clifford C. Gregg, A.G.D., Recruiting Officer and Assistant Adjutant General of the Sixth Corps Area, and Major Herndon H. Long, Infantry, Sixth Corps Area Classification Officer, have been of great value in the preparation of this discussion.

tion as constituted at the present time its purpose will have been achieved.

ARMY ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERN

THREE types of military organizations are concerned with personnel administration. From the first of these, the War Department,² emerge the guiding plans and policies. However, War Department officials cannot possibly direct and control all the details of personnel operations. Therefore, the great proportion of the field operating responsibilities have been delegated primarily to the commanders of corps areas (geographical regions), and secondarily to the commanders of tactical (fighting) units.

In order to understand the organization for personnel administration within each of the above types of agencies, it is essential that one aspect of the basic organization of the Army be kept in mind—the *command and staff procedure*³ upon which all Army organizations are constituted. Only in very small units can a military commander supervise all the details of military operations under his command and yet have time to consider the broader phases of his responsibilities. Such being the case, American military commanders have for many years been provided with a special group of officers to assist and advise them regarding the many problems and duties connected with their commands.

The size of this group varies directly with the total size of the organization under the direction of the commander. In large organizations the special group of officers is known as the *general staff*. It is subdivided into four sections,⁴ colloquially known as

"G-1," "G-2," "G-3," and "G-4." These staff units advise the commander, respectively, on matters of (1) personnel, (2) military intelligence, (3) operations and training, and (4) supply and evacuation. Thus the G-1 (personnel) section of any commander's general staff is the special planning and advisory body specifically organized to handle the personnel problems of the commander's organization.

IF THE general staff concerns itself with advisory matters, where are the principal operating responsibilities to be found in military administration? These devolve, for the most part, upon the branches of the Army (known as the *arms and services*), which are set up on a functional basis. The *arms*, primarily organized for actual combat, and the members of which compose the great body of military manpower, consist of the Infantry, Cavalry, Field Artillery, Coast Artillery Corps, Air Corps, Corps of Engineers, and Signal Corps. The *services*, organized primarily for administrative and supply purposes, are composed of the Adjutant General's Department, Inspector General's Department, Judge Advocate General's Department, Quartermaster Corps, Finance Department, Medical Department, Ordnance Department, Chemical Warfare Service, and Corps of Chaplains. Of all the branches, the Adjutant General's Department is the most concerned with the operating aspects of military personnel administration.

The heads of the various arms and services are known collectively as the chiefs of branches or the chiefs of the arms and services, and are stationed in the War Department. However, in all sizeable army organizations there are representatives of each arm and service who are primarily under the control of the commander of the unit in which they are stationed, and secondarily under the control of the chiefs of their respective branches in Washington.

The heads of the operating agencies in any military organization may also advise

² The term *War Department* is used in this discussion in a somewhat narrow sense—that is, it here refers only to that portion of the military organization which is maintained in Washington, and which is under the immediate supervision of the Secretary of War and the Chief of Staff.

³ For a more detailed presentation of the phases of this procedure see the War Department, *Staff Officers' Field Manual, the Staff and Combat Orders*, Field Manual 101-5 (Washington, 1940).

⁴ For functions necessarily peculiar to the War Department, the War Department General Staff contains a fifth section known as the "W.P.D." or War Plans Division.

the commander with respect to their specialties. In their advisory capacity they, together with a few other officers, are collectively known as the *special staff*. Thus, while general staff members only advise, most special staff members have both operating and advisory functions, although the precise line of demarcation between operation, supervision, and advice is often difficult to discover.⁵ Reference to Figure I should serve to clarify the manner in which the com-

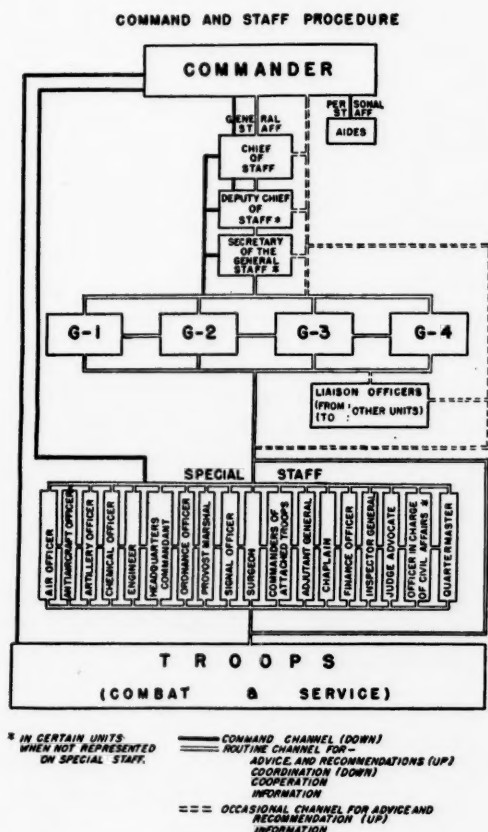
mand and staff procedure is carried out in large military organizations.

THE WAR DEPARTMENT

THE War Department is the hub of American military organization.⁷ Its structure follows roughly the pattern shown in Figure I, with the principal exception that no tactically organized combat and service troops are normally attached directly to the War Department. The President of the United States is the constitutional commander-in-chief of the military forces of the country, but both he and his Secretary of War have many responsibilities of other than a purely military nature. The most important War Department official concerned only with military affairs is the Chief of Staff of the War Department, at present General George C. Marshall. General Marshall's title, however, is somewhat of a misnomer, for he is not only the head of the general and special staffs of the War Department, but also the *de facto* commander-in-chief of the American armed forces. In the organizational structure shown in Figure I, General Marshall would occupy both the position of the Commander and that of the Chief of Staff.

Those War Department agencies most concerned with personnel administration are the G-1 (personnel) section of the General Staff and the Adjutant General's Department. The former concerns itself particularly with the preparation of plans and the supervision (not operation) of such activities as those relating to (1) procurement, classification, assignment, promotion, transfer, retirement, and discharge of all personnel; (2) measures for conservation of man power; (3) personnel replacements—operating in accord with priorities established by G-3 (training and operations); (4) army regulations as concern individuals or rou-

FIGURE I. COMMAND AND STAFF PROCEDURE IN THE UNITED STATES ARMY⁶



⁵ For a brief discussion of some of the problems resulting from the complexities of military administration see "The War Department," *Fortune*, Vol. 23, January 1941, pp. 40 ff.

⁶ War Department, *Staff Officers' Field Manual, the Staff and Combat Orders*, op. cit., p. 1.

⁷ For a good brief discussion of the organization of the War Department see "The War Department," *Fortune*, op. cit. For a less recent but more detailed discussion see John H. Marion, "Organization for Internal Control and Coordination in the U. S. Army," *American Political Science Review*, Vol. 32, October 1938, pp. 877-897.

tine not elsewhere assigned; (5) decorations and similar awards; (6) religious, recreational, and morale work; (7) the operation of such agencies as the Red Cross; (8) special provision for enemy aliens, prisoners of war, conscientious objectors and their security; and (9) the apprising of G-4 (supply) as to the shelter, and its location, necessary for quartering the military units.⁸ In its operations the G-1 section comes into especially close contact with the Adjutant General's Department, the Inspector General's Department, the Corps of Chaplains, the Judge Advocate General's Department, the Medical Department, the Finance Department, and the Provost Marshall.

THE ADJUTANT GENERAL

THE Adjutant General's Department is charged with the administration and operation of a large proportion of the personnel activities of the Army. This administration is carried out largely under the immediate direction of The Assistant The Adjutant General, who is Chief of the Personnel Bureau. As described in the Army Regulations,⁹ the functional scope of the organization is as follows:

This Bureau is charged . . . with the operating functions of procurement, classification, assignment, promotion, transfer, retirement and discharge of all officers and enlisted men of the Army . . . with the proviso that corps area commanders and the chiefs of the several arms and services will be charged with such of the above-described duties within their respective jurisdictions as may be prescribed by the Secretary of War.

In addition, certain of the functions of other parts of the Adjutant General's Department, such as the Executive Division, relate to personnel administration.¹⁰

In summing up the organization for personnel administration in the War Depart-

ment it may be said that the plans, policies, and procedures are drafted by the G-1 (personnel) section of the General Staff, approved by the Chief of Staff, and put into operation chiefly by the Adjutant General.

THE CORPS AREA

AS ALREADY mentioned, most of the field operating personnel activities are under the direction of corps area¹¹ commanders, operating through their own Adjutants General and G-1 (personnel) sections. The organization of a corps area headquarters corresponds in general to that illustrated in Figure I.

The G-1 section of the corps area general staff concerns itself in an advisory, planning and occasionally supervisory (not operating) capacity with the personnel problems of the area. However, as the G-1 section is far less concerned with actual personnel administration and field operations than is the Adjutant General's Department, further reference to the G-1 section of the corps area will be made only in connection with a few specific procedures.

In a corps area, as in the War Department, the Adjutant General performs dual functions similar to those of a chief clerk and a chief personnel officer. There is considerable similarity between the organization of the corps area and that of the War Department, with the exception that the former contains no special Personnel Bureau.

One additional officer of the special staff of the commanding general of the corps area should receive particular mention—the Civilian Components Affairs Officer. His duties include the procurement, classification, promotion, transfer, and discharge of members of the Organized Reserve Corps. Little further mention is made of the Organized Reserve Corps as a separate cate-

⁸ War Department, *General Staff: Organization and General Duties*, Army Regulations 10-15 (Washington, 1936).

⁹ War Department, *Adjutant General's Department: General Provisions*, Army Regulations 15-5 (Washington, 1939).

¹⁰ The Adjutant General is also charged with other functions quite different from those pertaining to personnel. These functions are chiefly of a clerical nature, and The Adjutant General might, with considerable justification, be called the chief clerk as well as the chief personnel officer of the Army.

¹¹ For convenience in military administration the area of continental United States has been divided into nine geographical regions, known as corps areas; the territories have been divided into four such regions, known as departments. Throughout the discussion special mention is occasionally made of the Sixth Corps Area, comprising the states of Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan, but only for purposes of illustration.

gory of personnel, but it may be assumed that the routine personnel procedures relating to this group of officers and enlisted men are handled in a corps area through the office of the CCA Officer, and from there by the Reserve Division of the Adjutant General's Department in Washington.

TACTICAL UNITS

THE War Department and corps area establishments are essentially of a "housekeeping" nature. They are not organized for battle, but for planning, administration, and supply of a third type of agency, the *tactical* or fighting unit. The principal tactical units are the field army, the corps, and the division. Tactical units must of course concern themselves with personnel problems, but of a different and more secondary nature from those dealt with by the "housekeeping" agencies.

Although the commanding general of a field army, for example, has his own general staff, G-1 (personnel) section, and Adjutant General (as indicated in Figure 1), these groups and individuals have little to do with the control of such activities as the initial procurement of man power, classification, and processing. They concern themselves only with those personnel functions relating immediately to the operation of the field army as a fighting organization. As such personnel functions are not, at least at present, functions basic to army personnel administration, the organization for personnel administration in tactical units is not considered in further detail.

PERSONNEL REQUIREMENTS AND PROCUREMENT

THE personnel requirements of the Army depend upon the objectives involved. In order to satisfy the requirements, allotments of personnel are made, by units or by individuals, from Regular Army, National Guard, Organized Reserve, and/or new personnel. The computing, reporting, and establishing of requirements, as well as the making of allotments, is a function central-

ized almost completely in the War Department.

The term "procurement" is designated by the Army as "the original act of obtaining personnel, as differentiated from obtaining personnel, already procured, by request for its assignment."¹²

Commissioned officers may be procured through several methods, of which the following are perhaps the most important. In certain branches, particularly the Medical Department, qualified civilians may be granted commissions without special military training. Civilians with qualifying experience and training, in addition to limited military training, may be granted commissions in the Organized Reserve Corps. Regular Army enlisted men (especially non-commissioned officers) may receive commissions in the Organized Reserves and may be called to duty as commissioned officers in emergencies. Other non-commissioned officers may receive commissions through regular promotion procedures. Those who complete certain ROTC instruction are granted commissions in the Organized Reserves. Graduates of military schools, such as West Point, are granted commissions in the Regular Army upon the completion of their course. Special training schools are being organized for selectees and others in the Regular Army who demonstrate themselves to be potential officer material.

There are only three methods by which enlisted personnel may be procured: (1) The utilization of existing army personnel; (2) The acquisition of new personnel through recruitment of volunteers; and (3) The acquisition of new personnel through the operation of the Selective Service System.

The procedure followed in the first method may involve merely the transfer, promotion, and/or retraining of units or individuals already in service. This discussion, however, will deal only with the

¹² War Department, *Personnel: Basic Instructions*, Mobilization Regulations 1-1, p. 2 (Washington, 1939). Those desiring further information on emergency military personnel administration should consult the entire series of Mobilization Regulations.

procedures concerned in the use of recruitment and selective service, for they are more complex and, at the present time, of greater relative importance.

RECRUITMENT OF ENLISTED PERSONNEL

THE term "recruitment" refers to the procurement of Army personnel through voluntary enlistment.¹³ Recruitment is under the general direction and supervision of The Adjutant General, through the Recruiting Section of the Personnel Bureau. Publicity of a general nature is prepared by the Recruiting Publicity Bureau at Governor's Island, New York, under the direction of The Adjutant General. Field recruiting operations are, however, decentralized under the authority of corps area commanders, who are responsible for recruitment in their respective areas. There is no coordination of Army, Navy, and Marine recruiting at the present time, and all three services maintain separate and competing organizations.

In a corps area recruitment is a function of the Procurement Section of the Enlisted Men's Division of the Adjutant General's Department. For further decentralization of recruiting operations, the corps area is divided into recruiting districts. There is a main recruiting station in each district, as well as a number of substations where applicants may be received and forwarded to the main station. In addition, there is a recruiting officer for each post, camp, fort, or detachment, who may recruit for his particular unit or for other types of troops when so authorized by the corps area commander. In the Sixth Corps Area, for example, there are six recruiting districts. These districts contain a total of six main recruiting stations, approximately ninety substations, and more than ten recruiting offices in such organizations as forts, camps, and air fields.¹⁴

¹³ Individuals may "volunteer for selective service" but they are still considered selectees and not recruits.

¹⁴ Since the adoption of the Selective Service System, a large proportion of Army recruiting has been directed toward the procurement of flying cadets. The examina-

Those eligible for enlistment are male citizens from eighteen to thirty-five years of age who can pass the required physical and mental tests. Following the tentative acceptance of an individual at a substation he is transported to a main recruiting station, where the final recruitment procedures of physical and mental examination are carried out. An accepted applicant is then sent from the recruiting station to a third agency, which may in some cases be a reception center, but which is more apt to be the post, camp, or unit of final assignment. There the individual goes through all the remaining steps necessary to convert him from civilian to military status—steps which include such procedures as the completion of records relating to insurance and to the issuance of clothing and equipment.

SELECTIVE SERVICE PROCUREMENT

AS WITH volunteers, the reception of selectees is basically a responsibility of the corps area commander, carried out principally through the efforts of his Adjutant General's Department and G-1 (personnel) section.¹⁵ However, the commander may employ other assistance. In the Sixth Corps Area, a Mobilization Officer, a general staff officer attached to the commander's G-3 (operations and training) section, determines the capacity of camps and stations, fits the flow of selectees through the reception centers, and determines the number of men to be requisitioned from each state.

The recently established agencies through which selectees are processed are known as "induction stations" and "reception centers." Selectees are first received from local boards at induction stations in groups approximating twenty. There are six such stations in the Sixth Corps Area, varying in daily processing capacity from 200 to 500 men. Here the men are given a second physi-

tions necessary for the completion of their recruiting procedure are administered through the cooperation of the Air Corps.

¹⁵ See War Department, *Reception of Selective Service Men*, Mobilization Regulations 1-7 (Washington, 1940).

cal examination, including a neuropsychiatric examination. Those passing fill out several types of records and immediately participate in a brief induction ceremony. They are then informed that they are members of the Army of the United States, given a brief description of their obligations and privileges, and are transported to a reception center, where they are received for further processing.¹⁶

In order that an over-all check may be kept upon the vital procedures of the reception center, a daily report of activities is sent to the corps area Adjutant General's Department. A consolidated report of the activities of the entire area is then prepared and forwarded to the Adjutant General's Department in Washington, D. C., for purposes of permanent record and military planning. In this manner the War Department may know at any given time such vital items of information as the percentage of skilled men to the total number of men received, the number of men skilled in any given trade, and the number of men being processed daily through the centers.

CLASSIFICATION OF ENLISTED MEN

IN CIVILIAN personnel administration the term "classification" is used almost exclusively with reference to position-classification. In the Army, however, the term refers to the whole process of ascertaining the qualifications of the individual and deciding on his best Army usefulness.¹⁷ To this process, the personal history record, interview, and examinations all contribute. In fact, the Army specifically defines this type of classification as the determination of the duty or duties which an individual is qualified to perform, with a view to giving

that assignment which will best meet the requirements of the public service."¹⁸ The Army's present modernized classification system, though planned and developed over a period of years, has been installed entirely within the past year in order to promote the solution of a most vital military problem—the optimum utilization of the individual skills and abilities of the thousands of men now rapidly being absorbed into the Army.

THE initial classification of an enlisted man procured within a corps area is a responsibility of the corps area commander, operating through the Classification Section of the Enlisted Division of his Adjutant General's Department. Commanders of units or installations to which the men are later assigned must keep the qualification records up to date as soldiers acquire new skills. All categories of enlisted men may be classified at reception centers, though some categories, particularly recruits, may be classified elsewhere. Therefore the description of classification procedures is limited to those followed in a reception center. The principal phases of classification are interviewing, testing, classifying, and coding and punching.

Interviewing. The purpose of an interview is principally to obtain from the individual a record of his abilities and interests, as revealed by his progress in school, his occupational history, his leisure-time activities, and similar indices. Interviewing is done by men specially trained for the purpose, for the results are dependent upon the skill with which the interviewing is done. The information elicited, along with test results, is recorded on the Soldier's Qualification Card. This, together with a Service Record, accompany the soldier wherever he may go, in order to serve as a basis for his assignment and reassignment.

Testing. The Army General Classification Test is now used in place of the Alpha and Beta intelligence tests and the vocabu-

¹⁶ The procedures carried out in the reception center include assignment of men to temporary quarters, intelligence testing, classification, issuance of clothing and equipment, insurance vaccination, and the filling out of various military forms.

¹⁷ See War Department, *Enlisted Men: Classification, Assignment, Reclassification, and Reassignment, and Separation From the Service*, Mobilization Regulations 1-8 (Washington, 1940); and War Department, *Enlisted Men: Classification*, Army Regulations 615-25 (Washington, 1940).

¹⁸ War Department, *Personnel: Basic Instructions*, op. cit., p. 2.

lary tests formerly given recruits.¹⁹ This test, designed to measure ability to learn the duties of a soldier, has been developed within the past two years through the efforts of a special Personnel Research Section attached to The Adjutant General's office and headed by Colonel Walter V. Bingham, one of the originators of the Alpha and Beta tests. Three types of this test have been prepared—one for men who can read and write English, one for illiterates and those not understanding English, and one for "special" testing of individuals. Following the rating of the answer sheets, the men are given one of five "grades." Grades I and V, indicating respectively "Superior Ability" and "Inferior Ability," are normally obtained by seven per cent of the adult male population of military age. Grades II and IV, standing respectively for "Better than Average" and "Less than Average Ability," are normally obtained by twenty-four per cent of this population. Grade III, indicating "Average Ability," is obtained by thirty-eight per cent.

In addition to the general classification tests, mechanical and clerical aptitude tests, as well as a number of trade tests devised with the aid of the United States Employment Service, are given as necessary. The oral trade tests are usually introduced as an integral part of the initial interview, whenever a man indicates familiarity with a trade for which such a standardized test is available.

Classifying. A soldier is next classified as to his main civilian occupation, his second best occupation, and his indicated best Army usefulness. This is done by a classifier, specially trained and possessing a broad knowledge of the Army and its occupational requirements. The classifier considers carefully the information that appears on the Qualification Card, and the assignment officer then recommends the individual for a particular military occupational assignment

in accord with occupational priorities established by the War Department. At present, approximately ten per cent of the men classified qualify as "skilled," forty per cent as "semi-skilled," and fifty per cent as "unskilled." The term "skilled" in this instance refers to skills directly useful in the Army.

As a classification aid, job specifications have been prepared for more than 250 types of military occupations which have equivalents in private industry or the public service. A directory of military occupational specialties²⁰ has also been prepared, and this, together with the definitions appearing in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* issued by the United States Employment Service, is used frequently in the classification process.

Coding and Punching. Finally, the Qualification Card is coded and punched in accord with the information recorded upon it. The cards of all men processed through the reception center are then sorted and filed. Sorting is done manually through the use of small selector devices which permit the desired cards to fall free from the remainder. The cards are eventually filed wherever the men are stationed. They are in daily use in helping company commanders to get acquainted with their men and in selecting men for particular duties or for special training.

ASSIGNMENT OF PERSONNEL

THE assignment of enlisted men may be made by a number of authorities, such as corps area commanders, unit commanders, and chiefs of arms and services. Certain assignments, however, are made directly by the War Department, and all assignments must be made in accordance with War Department priorities. Special care is taken that occupational specialists are assigned where the need is greatest.

¹⁹ See War Department, *Enlisted Men: Classification*, op. cit., pp. 33-36; and "Testing for Talent," *Fortune*, Vol. 23, pp. 68 ff.

²⁰ War Department, *Enlisted Men: Index and Specifications for Occupational Specialists and Index to Military Occupational Specialties*, Army Regulations 615-26 (Washington, 1940); see also War Department, *Classification of Enlisted Men: Occupational Conversion Tables*, Army Regulations 615-27 (Washington, 1940).

Raw recruits are assigned immediately to the branch for which they initially contracted. In the assignment of selectees from reception centers, close contact is maintained between the records and assignment section and the classification section of the reception center in order that the classifiers may make the most intelligent classification and recommendations concerning the assignment of the selectees. A requisition group in the reception center is charged with procedures relating to requisitions received from the corps area headquarters. An assignment officer, in accord with the requisition order, makes out a transfer list and compiles the records of the men to be transferred. The men, together with their records, are then transported to the assigned unit, organization, or section. Reclassification and reassignment of enlisted men occur principally when errors have been made or when individuals have occupied some position only temporarily.

The assignment and reassignment of officers is handled in general by the War Department from efficiency and other personnel records maintained in the office of The Adjutant General. Specific procedures may vary for different types of officers, but the maximum assignment period to a given position is normally four years.

TRANSFER AND REPLACEMENT

IN MILITARY personnel administration, transfer of personnel is often difficult to distinguish from assignment, promotion, and special appointment. For purposes of this discussion the term is considered as referring to the shifting of an individual from a position in one branch of the Army to a position of the same relative nature, grade, and importance in the same or different branch. Transfers of enlisted men from one branch to another seldom occur, as the individual is initially assigned to one branch either through special competence or desire. Transfers within the same branch, and particularly the same unit, are more frequent.

Ordinarily Regular Army officers remain in the particular branch to which they have been assigned, but transfers within the branch may be made. Transfers between branches may be initiated either by the officer or by the branch, and, subject to the approval of the chiefs of both branches concerned and the War Department, they may be consummated.

Replacement is a procedure which becomes more important the larger the Army and the more destructive its operations. Officers and enlisted men are required, not only to fill positions not previously occupied, but also to fill those which have been first occupied and then for some reason vacated. Individuals available for assignment to the first type of vacancy are known as "filler replacements"; those available for the second are designated as "loss replacements." One or more personnel replacement centers have been set up for most of the various branches, under the joint supervision of corps area commanders and the chiefs of the branches involved. In the Sixth Corps Area only one such center, organized for the Medical Department, is now established.

EFFICIENCY RATINGS

WHEN the term "classification" is used with reference to commissioned officers and certain noncommissioned officers, it refers to a procedure that is most nearly synonymous with the rating of efficiency as practiced in civilian personnel work.

Once every year, commissioned officers of the Regular Army and a limited number of noncommissioned officers are "classified" (*i.e.* rated) by the chiefs of their respective branches upon the basis of efficiency reports filed with The Adjutant General in the War Department. These efficiency reports are of two types—one relating to physical condition, and the other to professional military efficiency. The latter is originally prepared by the officer's immediate military superior, and may be reviewed by one or more additional superiors before it is transmitted to

The Adjutant General. The military proficiency, as well as the personal traits of the officer, are considered, and the officer may be evaluated as "Superior," "Excellent," "Very Satisfactory," "Satisfactory," or "Unsatisfactory."

In addition to the type of rating already described, each commissioned officer receives annually a general rating from the chief of his arm or service. This general rating is an evaluation of his efficiency over the previous ten years of service or, in the event that the officer has been in the Army for between five and ten years, the actual number of years of service.

Finally, each year all commissioned officers are placed in one of two classes by a special board of general officers²¹ convened by the President. Those officers whom the Board feels should be retained in the service are placed in Class A; those who should be discharged are recommended for placement in Class B. No officer is placed in the latter category, however, without an opportunity to be heard by a special court of inquiry.

PROMOTION POLICY AND PROCEDURE

IN THE Army, the promotion of enlisted men is for the most part a decentralized process, being normally a responsibility of the authorities in immediate command of the men. In certain of the arms and services, appointment to the three highest grades²² of enlisted men is made from eligible lists maintained by the chiefs of the arms and services, the number of promotions depending upon the vacancies in these grades. Appointment to the remaining grades is usually a responsibility of the commanding officer of the unit.

The promotion procedures for commissioned officers²³ of the Regular Army differ

²¹ Officers of the grade of brigadier-general or above are considered general officers.

²² Enlisted men are grouped into seven grades: (1) master sergeant; (2) technical sergeant and first sergeant; (3) staff sergeant; (4) sergeant; (5) corporal; (6) private, first class; and (7) private.

²³ Commissioned officers are grouped into the following grades, from the lowest to the highest: (1) Second

considerably from those for enlisted men. All promotion to the grades of first lieutenant and captain, and promotion up to the grade of colonel in the Medical Department and the Corps of Chaplains, is automatic with the completion of a given number of years of service. In other branches, the promotion of Regular Army officers to the grades of major, lieutenant-colonel, and colonel depends upon the existence of vacancies, which are filled through seniority. Most general officers are appointed by the President from eligible lists which are prepared by special boards consisting of general officers. The highest ranking officers of the War Department, such as the Chief of Staff, Deputy Chiefs of Staff, and chiefs and assistant chiefs of branches, are appointed by the President. The President, however, is necessarily guided considerably by the views of the Chief of Staff in all appointments.

Other promotions, special appointments, and special assignments are made through various procedures. The appointment of general staff officers is controlled by the G-1 section of the War Department, under the direction of the Chief of Staff. Chiefs of branches and the commanders of units have considerable voice in appointments within their own organizations. Individual preferences of officers may also play a part in special assignment and appointment.

ARMY PAY PLAN

THE military pay plan, a product of Congressional legislation, was most recently amended by the Selective Service Act. The range of base pay for enlisted men now varies from \$30 per month for enlisted men of the seventh grade to \$126 per month for those of the first grade. However enlisted men (including selectees) of less than four months' service still receive only \$21 per month.

In addition to their base pay, enlisted men may receive further compensation from

Lieutenant, (2) First Lieutenant, (3) Captain, (4) Major, (5) Lieutenant Colonel, (6) Colonel, (7) Brigadier General, (8) Major General, (9) Lieutenant General, and (10) General.

several sources. For example, they may be granted monetary allowances in lieu of rations and quarters normally provided by the government. Those men qualifying for specialist ratings, of which there are six classes, may receive an additional \$3 to \$30 per month. Soldiers below the first three grades may receive from \$1 to \$5 additional monthly pay for special qualification in the use of arms. At the end of four years of service all enlisted men receive a ten per cent increase in pay. This percentage increase is computed on the total of base pay plus any added compensation as a specialist.

The pay of officers consists of base pay and allowances. Base pay ranges from the \$1,500 per year received by second lieutenants to a possible \$13,500 per year received by a full general. The Chief of Staff currently receives \$8,000 per year.

Additional pay allowances may be of three types. The most common types of allowances received by an officer are designated as "subsistence" and "rental" allowances. The third type is known as a special money allowance. It is received by certain of the chief military officials, such as the Chief of Staff, and may be as high as \$2,200 per year. In addition to base pay and allowances, officers receive an automatic increase in base pay of five per cent at the end of each three years of active service in a given grade. Officers who participate regularly in necessary aerial flights receive an increase in base pay of fifty per cent during the period in which such flights are authorized.

Civilian employees are paid in the same manner and at the same rates as are other civilian employees of the federal government. The routine procedures relating to the various aspects of military compensation are principally functions of the Finance Department.

SEPARATION AND RETIREMENT

A NUMBER of grounds are provided by Army regulations whereby enlisted men may be separated from the service. The principal ones are: expiration of term of

service; disability; minority; dependency; fraudulent enlistment; desertion; inaptness or undesirable habits or traits of character; conviction by civil court; conviction by court martial; writ of habeas corpus; and the convenience of the government (used principally in demobilization).

The separation of officers occurs principally through retirement, although a relatively small number are separated as a result of resignation, discharge, dismissal, absence without leave, and death. The retirement of officers is voluntary when they have completed forty years of military service, and compulsory when they reach sixty-four years of age or are physically disabled. Upon application, officers who have served from fifteen to forty years may be retired at the discretion of the President. Also discretionary with the President is the retirement of officers who are sixty-two years old, or who have served forty-five years.

In general, both officers and enlisted men may retire after thirty years of service. The maximum retirement pay is three-fourths the pay attached to a man's final grade. Those who retire with less than thirty years of service receive a lesser proportion of the pay attached to their final grade, dependent upon their actual years of service.

CONCLUSION

The Army organization for personnel administration is, of course, only one aspect, but an important one, of military management. Within the past year it has undergone considerable modernization and revision with a view to providing more adequately for modern military necessities. The only other comparable revision of military personnel practices and procedures was that undertaken during the first World War. Measures now being placed into operation have been carefully considered in the light of the broad experience gained during the earlier conflict.²⁴ Special attention is being

²⁴ For a comprehensive history and discussion of the operations of the Army personnel system during the first World War see War Department, *The Personnel System of the United States Army*. (Washington, 1919).

paid to those phases of personnel administration that are most conducive to the efficient utilization of individual skills and abilities.

As suggested before, all military administration is, in a way, personnel administration. It cannot be emphasized too heavily that the procedures which have been singled out for consideration in this paper are not all the procedures which have a bearing on matters of personnel in their broadest interpretation. For instance, little reference has been made to the topic of morale, for

the reason that considerations of morale are so all-inclusive that it is impossible to consider them here. The same is true with a number of other aspects of military administration which relate to matters of personnel administration. It is hoped, however, that the material which has been presented will give those who may be relatively unfamiliar with things military, a general view of the organizations and procedures which form the principal constituent elements of military personnel administration.

Rating Training and Experience in Merit System Selection¹

JACK H. POCKRASS

OBSERVABLE improvement has been made in very recent years in the techniques employed in the recruitment of local, state, and national government personnel. The written examinations now being used to sift applicants for the public service are being made more objective and, with the exception of those primarily designed to measure potentiality or trainability, are more closely related to the actual job to be done. Increasing emphasis is similarly being placed on the use of performance tests for measuring the manual skills and special dexterities required in the operation of various types of equipment and machinery, and in testing the ability of those who profess competence in a trade or craft to handle an actual typical assignment properly.

The construction of practical written examinations and performance tests has been facilitated by job specifications that describe the work to be performed. These specifications also state minimum requirements of training and experience deemed necessary for successful performance on the job. Written and oral examinations and performance tests are customarily conducted for applicants who do meet minimum requirements of training and experience, since mere possession by an applicant of such qualifications is not a sufficient index of ability to perform efficiently.

¹ The opinions expressed in this article are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the official views of the Social Security Board.

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PRESENT-DAY APPROACH TO BACKGROUND EVALUATION

NOT so long ago it was the practice to utilize minimum requirements as a qualifying hurdle only. Current practice, however, reflects the thinking that quantitative ratings may be assigned to training and experience qualifications as stated in competitors' applications, and utilized as a differentiating instrument in the selective process. For many positions of an administrative, supervisory, technical, or professional nature, it is frequently felt that a written examination and oral interview may not adequately measure quantitative and qualitative differences in the backgrounds of acceptable candidates. For these responsible positions, candidates' qualifications of training and experience are rated and additional numerical credits are assigned to qualifications possessed in excess of minimum requirements.

It is not customary, however, to apply such a procedure to secure such in the case of most entrance-level clerical positions. The extremely large number of competitors in typical examinations for positions of this sort make the cost of rating prohibitive. Furthermore, since the clerical tasks to be performed may require little previous experience, a satisfactory written examination related to the actual duties to be performed probably provides in itself the most valid instrument for estimating ability to do the job. In examinations for lower-level typist and stenographic positions, the combination of competitive performance tests and written examination usually obviates the need for a

rating of training and experience. Rating may be feasible, however, for positions involving the operation of tabulating or duplicating equipment for which the performance test is given on a qualifying basis only, at the time of appointment.

In general, it may be said, training and experience should be rated primarily for those positions for which it is believed that, within certain limits, candidates with additional pertinent background make more desirable employees than those whose backgrounds are less comprehensive and less specifically related.

WHAT are the factors to be considered in formulating a scale for the rating of training and experience which will properly reflect qualitative differences in candidates' qualifications? Some scales appear to have been formulated on the thesis that there is a direct relationship between length of experience and its contribution toward a competitor's desirability. Quantity of experience alone, however, is not a sufficient criterion of satisfactoriness; there may be an optimum amount of training and experience beyond which an inverse relationship exists between duration of experience and a candidate's suitability for a particular type of position. There probably is a maximum contribution that either training or experience can make in determining the relative suitability of various candidates for employment in a given position.

It seems desirable procedure, then, to utilize a rating scale in which qualifications that just meet the minimum requirements stated in the announcement of examination are equivalent to the minimum passing score, either directly or after statistical transformation. Above this critical point additional credit is given, within specified limits, for years of training and experience in excess of the minimum requirements. This latter differential appraisal would be based upon factors of quality, recency, and progressiveness of experience, and pertinency of educational training.

While these qualitative measures that are used in rating may be applied without their having been spelled out in specifications, an examining agency is likely to be in a more defensible position if such information is included in general language in the examination announcements, rather than being set up after accepting applications.

QUALITATIVE DIFFERENCES IN EXPERIENCE BACKGROUNDS

REFINEMENT of the rating process has required recognition of qualitative differences of experience as they relate to job requirements. While one type of experience may be accepted as meeting minimum requirements, superior experience of similar duration should be assigned greater numerical credit. The extent to which classification of different types of experience into qualitative categories is desirable or practicable varies with the position involved. Three, four, and even five categories are commonly employed.

Job specifications frequently specify two qualities of required experience, which may be called "qualifying" and "special" experience.² For rating purposes, however, it is usually possible to categorize types of experience, whether or not so stipulated in specifications, as: (A) superior special experience, (B) acceptable special experience, (C) superior qualifying experience, (D) acceptable qualifying experience, or (X) non-acceptable. Although a job specification may stipulate "qualifying" experience alone, it is still desirable, for the purpose of qualitative evaluation, to credit different

² In one state, for example, the minimum requirements for the position of District Supervisor stipulate, in part, two years of qualifying experience (in the fields of social case work, public or private relief administration, etc.) including at least one year in a supervisory case work capacity in either a public or private relief administering agency. In another state, the minimum requirements for a claims examining position stipulate five years of work related to investigating, adjusting and preparing reports of cases of contested claims, of which two years must have been special experience, defined as employment in a professional or other responsible capacity in labor or industrial relations, public employment service, social work, law, accounting, or enforcement of federal or state labor laws.

types of experience on a qualitative scale on the basis of such factors as the degree of pertinency of acceptable experience, the duties and responsibilities involved, and possibly, the standards of selection and performance in the organization in which the pertinent experience was obtained.

While it might theoretically be desirable to follow the practice, now being experimented with in a few jurisdictions, of having previous employers evaluate the quality of the service rendered by the candidate while in their employ, the unreliability to which such evaluations are so frequently subject must be kept in mind. This is especially true when an attempt is made to obtain such evaluations of performance when the employment itself is more than a year removed from the time of inquiry and verification. The high degree of unreliability inherent in such retrospective evaluation argues against its inclusion as one of the factors in the experience rating plan.

THE establishment of qualitative standards, then, requires the grouping of acceptable types of experience into qualitative categories according to their pertinency to the job to be done. This may be done on an *a priori* basis after careful consideration of training facilities and employment opportunities in the state and in neighboring states. An alternative or supplementary procedure would be to set up the qualitative categories on the basis of an extensive sampling of applications received. In any event, the initial experience (and training) categories should be as complete as possible to avoid the need for any subsequent revision which might necessitate the rescoring of a large number of applications.

Consideration must be given during this grouping process to the recognition of levels of responsibility of the work performed as well as the field in which such work was performed. In many professions or occupational groupings it is possible to discern a performance hierarchy which has at least three major steps:

Working level. In this category would fall the case worker who carries a case load, the bookkeeper who posts entries, and the stenographer who takes dictation and types.

Supervisory level. In this category are those positions which involve the immediate supervision, training and evaluation of those employed at the working level.

Administrative level. This level consists of those engaged primarily in policy making, coordinating and consulting activities.

Level of responsibility is only one dimension; the field of work is a second dimension. For a given position, supervisory experience in one field is not necessarily qualitatively equivalent to supervisory experience in another field. Qualitative groupings, therefore, should specify the level of responsibility in any given field of work. Definitions of both are essential for consistency in the classification of different types of experience.

PERTINENCY OF EDUCATIONAL TRAINING

JUST as qualitative differences may be established among different types of experience, it is likewise possible to differentiate among different types of educational background according to their contribution to an understanding of and training for the job to be done. Two and three levels of pertinency have frequently been employed. For social work positions, for example, training in a school which was recognized by the American Association of Schools of Social Work during the period of the candidate's attendance has frequently constituted type A training, whereas university work in such related fields as psychology, home economics, and the biological sciences has frequently been considered as type B training. Other types of undergraduate work leading to a bachelor's degree in an accredited university are sometimes credited as type C training.

There has not been particularly strong feeling about a recency requirement for educational training for most positions, with the possible exception of social work positions. (In this particular instance the nature of the training has changed to meet a changing

philosophy of social welfare.) If, for example, there is a requirement of three years of a given type experience in the last ten years, but candidates are permitted to substitute one year of graduate study for one year of this experience, it might reasonably be required that this study shall have been completed within the last ten years.

USE OF SUBJECT MATTER CONSULTANTS

THE classification of types of experience and educational training into different groups requires the judgment of competent individuals in the field under consideration. In making decisions affecting rating standards, especially those pertaining to professional positions such as accountants, statisticians, attorneys, and similar varieties of positions, the use of competent consultants is strongly recommended.

This type of participation in the examining program of the agency is desirable not only for the purpose of obtaining the most competent judgments available, but as a selling point in good public relations. Such individuals will naturally be interested in the maintenance of standards they have helped establish. They also provide an effective channel of interpretation of the merit system program to the community, and can be of material assistance in obtaining public support to help both the examining and operating agencies to withstand any pressure aimed to abandon selection on the basis of fitness.

Public awareness of the caliber of participating consultants can ethically be made part of effective merit examination publicity, and, as already demonstrated in some jurisdictions, can help establish confidence in the integrity of the selective process and can result in the wider recruitment of qualified applicants. Because such consultants are important to the success of the program, their selection merits careful consideration. Although qualified consultants will usually be found in the agency for which examinations are being held, it may be well to seek sources of assistance outside the

agency^a so that the inherent independence of the examining agency's function will be clear to the public.

IT IS frequently felt, with reasonable justification, that a candidate who has acquired the requisite experience within the last five or ten years is likely to be better qualified than the person whose similar experience is fifteen or twenty years removed. It is similarly believed that, of those persons having the same net amount of experience within a given period, those who have progressed in responsibility of position and salary during this period are likely to be better qualified in terms of experience and personal adjustment than those who have marked time or retrogressed.

The rating scale may be so constructed that credit will not be given for experience acquired prior to a stated date. It is further possible to set up the scale so that, for experience of a given quality, greater numerical credit is assigned to the experience acquired in 1940 than for identical experience acquired in, say, 1935.

It is well to consider whether or not credit should be given for part-time experience, or for unpaid volunteer experience, when presented by candidates as qualifying experience. A requirement of full-time paid experience seems necessary in order to exclude those persons who have had only a casual relationship in the specific field of profession. It is usual practice not to credit volunteer or unpaid experience because it is frequently difficult to obtain information concerning the actual duties of such positions, the amount of time devoted to such work, the degree of supervision exercised over such work, or the skills or techniques acquired or applied under such circumstances.

^a When outside consultants are called upon to assist in the examining process, it is essential that the agency avoid arousing any professional jealousies that may exist. Preliminary inquiries, initiated through several channels, will usually indicate whether persons being considered as consultants will be the cause of an unfavorable reaction if appointed.

THE BACKGROUND EVALUATION FORM

THE form used in connection with the suggested plan for evaluation of applicants' background is a relatively simple instrument consisting of two major parts—one for the evaluation of training, and the other for the evaluation of experience. As shown on the next page, the form consists essentially of two calibrated rating scales, each containing a schedule of points that varies both horizontally and vertically. In reproducing the form for quantity use it is desirable to use the mimeograph or other inexpensive duplicating process, rather than printing, inasmuch as it is necessary to make an annual revision of the "year" headings at the top of the experience rating scale. Then too, the use of an inexpensive duplicating process makes it relatively easy to produce special forms containing special schedules of weighting points whenever circumstances require.

The rating scale should make provision for crediting experience in units of three, four, or six months, so that qualitative differences may be recognized in the rating process when a change has occurred in the nature or level of the applicant's work within a particular calendar year. Six-month units are probably most convenient to work with, and any refinement beyond three-month units is generally unjustified because of the nature of the quantities and qualities being measured.⁴

The numerical weights appearing in the accompanying form have been more or less arbitrarily determined for purposes of illustration. Nevertheless, whatever schedule of weights is adopted to meet general or particular circumstances should reflect sensed qualitative differences among different

types of experience and different types of training. In extending the scale to cover the period of years for which candidates are being rated, numerical ratios need not remain fixed, but should be retained only in accordance with their estimated importance.

In allocating the various weights, consideration should also be given to the consistency between the maxima allotted respectively to training and experience and the policy of the personnel agency in endeavoring to appraise the developmental potentialities of appointees. That is, if an agency prefers college graduates for a certain position, weights may be so assigned that, in rating candidates presenting different combinations of training and experience which are deemed equivalent for the purpose of meeting minimum requirements, those with the superior educational qualifications would obtain higher ratings. Conversely, where experience is deemed to be the more important factor, weights should be so assigned as to be consistent with administrative objectives.

The prevailing practice of permitting candidates to substitute training for experience and experience for training requires that the tentative weights be tested for the various possible combinations so that it may be determined whether the intended objective is being achieved. In any event, there should be an awareness of the effect of the weighting on the selective process. However, in the construction of a scale which purports to recognize qualitative differences, it is an extremely difficult, if not impossible, task to set up weights so that all acceptable combinations of training and experience are numerically equivalent.

METHOD OF RATING

THERE are various methods of rating now in use—some good, some poor—with emphasis being placed on different factors in each, seemingly in accordance with which appears to be of most importance to the particular scale constructor. Nearly all rating systems recognize differences in types

⁴ Inasmuch as the rating plan employs a schedule of credits which gives the greatest relative weight to experience obtained within the most recent years, it may in some instances be desirable to set up the experience rating form in such fashion that the two or three most recent calendar years are divided into three-month units, the remaining years being divided into six-month units. This will permit a more precise appraisal of that portion of the applicant's experience which carries the heaviest relative weight.

RATING OF TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE FOR THE POSITION OF:

IDENTIFICATION NUMBER _____

EXPERIENCE RATING SCALE

YEAR	1940	1939	1938	1937	1936	1935	1934	1933	1932	1931	CREDIT POINTS
TYPE A	 10	 10	 10	 9	 9	 9	 8	 7	 6	 4	20.
TYPE B	 8	 8	 8	 7	 7	 6	 6	 5	 4	 3	17.5
TYPE C	 6	 6	 6	 5	 5	 4	 4	 3	 3	 2	7.5
TYPE D	 4	 4	 4	 3	 3	 3	 2	 2	 1	 1	2.

TRAINING RATING SCALE

YEARS	UNDERGRADUATE LEVEL				GRADUATE LEVEL			CREDIT POINTS
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
TYPE A	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	16.
TYPE B	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2.
TYPE C	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
DEGREES	BACHELOR'S (2)				MASTER'S (3)		PH.D. (5)	2.

RATED BY _____

TOTAL RAW SCORE 67.

DATE _____

TRANSFORMED SCORE _____

FIGURE 1. BACKGROUND EVALUATION FORM

of experience, but the methods of incorporating this recognition into the rating process vary from the simple use of three or four types of experience as the only qualitatively differentiating factor, to the development of formulae for the plotting of curves intended to approximate the learning curves for different types of occupations. It is questionable whether complicated methods of scoring increase the validity of the ratings derived, and consideration must be given to the practical problem of ease of administration with minimum loss of reliability and validity of rating.

Rating scales of the type herein described, constructed in accordance with the criteria considered, have been used in several state merit examination programs.⁵ It is a simple task to present graphically on this rating scale a candidate's employment history on a year-by-year and job-by-job basis. In actual practice, a separate form is used for rating each candidate's qualifications. The author is exploring the feasibility of the adaptation of this form to the International Electric Test Scoring Machine, which would minimize both the amount of clerical computation involved and the amount of clerical error inherent in such calculations.

It will be noted that this scale provides for the recognition of qualitative differences by the inclusion of four degrees of relevance of acceptable experience and three categories of acceptable educational training. Qualitative differentiation is reflected by the numerical difference in weights for different types of experience in any given year, and by the regressive weighting of more remote experience.

ILLUSTRATION OF RATING METHOD

TO ILLUSTRATE the application of this method of rating, assume that the closing date for the receipt of applications for a given position is January 1, 1941, and that all candidates for this position are re-

quired to possess at least the following qualifications:

MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS:

Graduation from an accredited college or university; 3 years of general experience (type D) within the last 10 years; and 2 years of specialized experience (type B) within the last 10 years.

The following represents in condensed, classified form the educational background and employment history of a hypothetical candidate:

TRAINING:

4 years of college, major in category A, bachelor's degree; 1 year of graduate work, major in category B, no higher degree.

EXPERIENCE.

January 1939—December 1940:	2 years "A" experience
February 1938—December 1938:	1 year "B" experience
August 1936—January 1938:	1½ years "C" experience
January 1935—July 1936:	1½ years "B" experience
February 1934—December 1934:	1 year "X" experience (unrelated experience)
November 1932—January 1934:	1 year unemployed
May 1929—October 1932:	3½ years "D" experience

The heavy black lines that appear in the illustrative rating scale (Fig. 1) graphically depict how this candidate's employment history is accounted for in the rating process. In the actual rating situation, each rating of a candidate's application would be made on a separate rating form, the lines being drawn in colored pencil. Since pertinent experience must have been acquired within the last 10 years, provision is made for rating only that experience subsequent to January 1, 1931, and the 1½ years of type D experience acquired prior to that time is necessarily ignored. Periods of employment are credited to the nearest six months, as indicated by the midpoint in each box representing a calendar year.

When the rating scale is applied against this candidate's experience and education record, a total raw score of 67 is obtained by adding the several units of credit. This score, however, has no significance until

⁵ Credit for the initial development of this type of rating scale is due to Dr. Joseph W. Hawthorne, Assistant Chief, State Technical Advisory Service, Social Security Board.

the numerical equivalent of the minimum requirements has been determined. The poorest combination of training and experience, the latter necessarily being a regressive employment history, that would be accepted as meeting the minimum requirements would be as follows:

4 years college, with a major in category C, and a bachelor's degree; 2 years of specialized type B experience, from January 1931 to December 1932; and 3 years of general type D experience, from January 1933 to December 1935.

These marginal qualifications, when applied against the rating scale, have numerical values of 4, 2, 7, and 7, respectively, totaling 20 points. If the customary civil service procedure of expressing satisfactory ratings within the range of 70 to 100 is followed, then this minimum passing raw score of 20 must be equated to a transformed score of 70; the raw score values of other acceptable combinations of training and experience would then be transformed within this range by a statistical method consistent with the method employed in establishing the passing score for the written examination.

CONVERSION OF SCORES

ALTHOUGH the use of standard scores is probably most desirable for the purpose of combining scores on the written examination with scores on the rating of training and experience, the following simple conversion equation could be used to transform raw scores for training and experience to the desired range of 70 to 100:

$$Y = 70 + X \left[\frac{T_e - P_e}{T_r - P_r} \right]$$

In this equation, Y is the transformed score; T_e is the highest possible converted score, 100; P_e is the passing converted score, 70; T_r is the highest earned raw score; P_r is the raw score equivalent of the minimum qualifications, 20 in this case; and X is the positive difference between the numerical value of any candidate's qualifications and the numerical value of the minimum qualifications. In the case of this hypothetical candidate, X equals 67 minus 20, or 47. To

illustrate the application of this equation, let us assume that T_r (the highest raw score earned by any candidate) is 88. The following would then represent the calculation of the score for our hypothetical candidate:

$$Y = 70 + 47 \left[\frac{100 - 70}{88 - 20} \right] \text{ equals } 90.74$$

Consideration must be given, of course, to the possibility of an extremely high, atypical value for T_r , which might result in a bunching of converted scores between 70 and 80 and a consequent loss of the discriminative value of the rating of training and experience. In such cases, it may be desirable arbitrarily to place the value of T_r at some point between the modal grouping of scores and the extreme score. Any scores above T_r would, necessarily, be given a numerical score of 100.

In some jurisdictions where a veterans' preference law requires the addition of 5 or 10 points to total passing scores of veterans, it has sometimes been recommended that converted scores be made to fall between the range of 70 to 90 so that no scores will exceed 100. Inasmuch as this has the effect of squeezing all scores into a more restricted range, with a consequent loss of qualitative differentiation, it may be much more desirable to assign scores of 100 or over for the few cases where this might possibly occur.

STANDARDIZING THE RATING PROCESS

WHILE the rating scale itself may commonly be thought of as the prime essential in standardization, further consideration should lead to the conclusion that the scale is merely the medium through which are expressed in numerical form the various judgments reached during the process of evaluating a candidate's qualifications. It is on the standardization of the judgmental processes, therefore, that greatest emphasis must be placed. Consideration should be given to the following significant factors in standardizing this aspect of the total examination process:

Standardization of Terminology. Ambiguous terminology in specifications and

announcements is not uncommon and applicants naturally make such interpretations as best suit their objectives. When different points of reference are taken by applicants and the examining agency, unfavorable criticism and appeals from the rejection of applications may be expected. Terms such as "supervisory experience" and "related fields" should be defined in announcements so that there can be no mistaking their intent. If educational training may be substituted for experience, and vice versa, the limits of such substitution should be indicated clearly. It should likewise be clear whether college training may be substituted for the qualifying experience or for the special required experience.

Consistency in rating, whether one or several raters are employed, will be facilitated by specific definitions of such generic terms as "social case work," "accounting experience," and "legal practice." The range of activities that could be included under any of these broad terms requires that they be clearly defined in terms of the functions of the position for which the examination is being held. An objective record of these definitions should be helpful in providing reviewable evidence of the rating standards in the event of appeals.

Reduction of Variability of Raters' Judgments. The fallibility of raters' judgments makes necessary the establishing of quantitative and qualitative standards of rating. While these very standards may be subject to errors of judgment in the process of their construction, the amount of error is minimized by the use of pooled judgments of several competent consultants. Standardization of the rating process itself will be facilitated by assigning the rating of all applications for a given class of position to one rater, or to a limited number of raters where a large quantity of applications is involved. This will reduce the variability of judgments likely to result if a group of applications for a given position are rated by several raters, or if any one rater is required to rate applications for a variety of positions which

may come across his desk in random order.

This procedure should not be confused with that followed when it is desirable to check the reliability of the rating process by having one or more additional raters evaluate the same set of applications. Since awareness of the previous rating may influence the second rater, it is usually recommended that successive ratings be made independently. The independent ratings thus obtained can be averaged to get a final score. A significant difference between two independent ratings of an application would be indicative either of the existence of an error or a need for the clarification of the standards employed by the raters. For many professional positions it is highly desirable to have subject matter consultants participate in the actual rating as well as the construction of the rating scales.

To minimize raters being consciously or unconsciously influenced by the knowledge of a candidate's identity, examination applications may be constructed so that identifying information may be detached from the application in advance of the rating process.

EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS

THERE are persons of outstanding ability in industry and the public service who, owing to the inadequacies of educational facilities in certain regions, economic pressures, or other controlling factors, were never graduated from a secondary school. Many of these people managed to supplement their formal education through correspondence or extension courses. This fact may account in part for the practice in some jurisdictions of accepting "education equivalent to high school graduation." As a result of the enactment and enforcement of compulsory education laws, the number of applicants who are not high school graduates may be expected to decline sharply in many states. Meanwhile, it may be necessary to make decisions concerning the equivalent values of training in preparatory schools, in business schools, correspondence

schools, private tutoring, apprenticeship, and other types of training outside the public school system. Because of the difficulties involved in evaluating and verifying such training, it seems desirable to limit considerably the extent to which this type of training may be substituted for high school graduation. The experience of some jurisdictions has shown that, where admission standards of different colleges are not known, limited college attendance is not in itself sufficient evidence of high school graduation.

When business school attendance is a requirement for secretarial and other positions, or is accepted as an equivalent of high school attendance, it may be necessary to differentiate among various schools which are indiscriminately called "business colleges." The curricula of some of these schools are of the high school level of instruction, specializing in stenographic courses; other schools require high school graduation as a prerequisite and have curricula specializing in commercial subjects. Then, too, some universities have a full-time secretarial course. If training and experience are rated for secretarial positions, or if business college attendance is credited for certain accounting positions, there should be differentiation between such institutions on the basis of their entrance requirements and curricula.

IT IS frequently easier to differentiate between accredited and non-accredited colleges than it is to determine what is acceptable high school or business school training. Where graduation from an accredited college is a requirement, the state department of education can be of assistance in indicating which institutions in the state meet established standards. Inasmuch as many candidates will be found to have attended universities outside the state, recourse should be had to the catalogs listing

accredited colleges and universities throughout the country.⁶

Some universities are organized on a semester-hour basis and others are on a quarter-hour basis. Furthermore, candidates may have attended day, night, or summer sessions and may have carried either full-time or part-time programs. Dates of attendance alone, therefore, may be misleading. In order to have some comparable basis for the uniform evaluation of educational training, it may be best to utilize the total number of credits usually required for graduation as the criterion of amount of college work completed. Inasmuch as three quarters are equivalent to two semesters, a scale can be set up on which any number of credits of either kind can readily be converted into the units employed in the rating scale. The application form should be constructed so that candidates may record the number and type of credits earned.

Some jurisdictions require candidates to provide transcripts of their college work as a basis for determining creditable attendance. This is an expense to candidates which may be avoided for the purposes of many examinations by merely asking for a statement of the number of credits successfully completed. This statement may either be certified by the institution, probably without charge to the candidate, or can be verified by the examining agency by a letter of inquiry.

College graduation, as a requirement, has generally been interpreted to mean that the candidate shall have been awarded a degree. Although a degree may not necessarily indicate that its owner is better qualified than an individual who completed an equivalent number of credits without having obtained a degree, the degree in itself may usually be considered as objective evidence that a curriculum has been satisfactorily completed. Since the significance of the degree is dependent upon the status of the institution which awards it, care must be exercised that a candidate's claim that he has a bachelor's degree is not accepted as

⁶ Probably the best catalog available is the *Educational Directory, Bulletin 1940, No. 1, Part III—Colleges and Universities*, issued by the United States Office of Education.

sufficient evidence of graduation from a four-year undergraduate course.

Impressive degrees, resembling university degrees, are given by some correspondence schools. Occasionally commercial schools will be encountered which give a B.C.S. (Bachelor of Commercial Science) for two years of work, which may be mistaken for the B.S.C. (Bachelor of Science in Commerce) given by accredited institutions. Law degrees are given by some schools for three years attendance, usually beyond high school graduation, whereas accredited institutions usually require either a university pre-law course or graduation from a university prior to admittance to law school. Because C.P.A. standards vary in different states, it may be necessary, where this is a requirement, to obtain information concerning the standards met by different candidates. Since it is not uncommon to encounter a D.D. (Doctor of Divinity) or a D.V.S. (Doctor of Veterinary Science), decisions will have to be made as to the pertinency of the degree offered to the position for which the candidate is applying.

QUALITATIVE EXPERIENCE STANDARDS

IN RATING candidate's experience qualifications, the organization in which the work was performed is occasionally a factor with which raters are concerned. This is especially true in connection with professional positions in the social welfare field. While it may be desirable to evaluate an agency with respect to its standards of performance and supervision, this worthy objective is more easily acclaimed than accomplished. Although it is feasible to recognize agencies that operate under a state license which requires the meeting of certain standards, or are member agencies of recognized national associations which have uniform standards, the evaluation of the standards of other agencies present a more formidable task. The public relations problems involved are delicate and, if not handled skilfully, may result in the setback of efforts to maintain standards.

As previously suggested, the establishment of rating standards for important professional positions requires the assistance of consultants more expert in and more conversant with the subject than the candidates who are competing. The practice of using ordinary clerks in this important process is fraught with danger. In a few jurisdictions, this has resulted in the loss of prestige of the examining agency in the eyes of informed professional groups.

VERIFICATION OF TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE STATEMENTS

ESSENTIAL to the rating process is the establishment of the fact that candidates actually do have the qualifications they represent themselves as having. In usual practice, rating and verification are deferred until after the written examinations have been administered and scored, in order to avoid unnecessary work in the case of those who are unsuccessful. In addition to determining that candidates actually meet minimum requirements, it is necessary to ascertain whether candidates have correctly described the duration and quality of their training and experience or have followed the understandable tendency of dressing up qualifications in order to obtain the highest rating possible. Misrepresentations will be found to range from misstatements that are actually due to faulty memory to cases of deliberate falsification. If the merit system method of recruitment is to be safeguarded, it is the responsibility of the examining agency to make every effort to the end that candidates' ratings are based upon their actual qualifications.

During the rating process, it is not uncommon to encounter applications which cannot be rated properly because of lack of sufficient information concerning the duration of employment, the nature of duties performed, the amount of college credits, and similar points. Overlapping periods of employment, or of employment and education, must also be clarified so that credits may be properly assigned. A prob-

lem frequently encountered is that of candidates who have had a long period of progressive service in an organization and who are inclined to describe the whole period of employment in terms of the most recent position and title. This is another factor to be kept in mind in the designing of application forms.

Such problems of inadequate or conflicting information should be solved by correspondence as quickly as possible, in order that the rating process can be completed and registers can be established without delay. It has been found advisable to inform candidates that the appropriate information must be returned within a limited time if it is to be given consideration.

CONCLUSION

IT HAS been urged by some that the rating of training and experience be discarded in favor of the more objective criteria of fitness. Nevertheless, there seems to

be a place for this process in merit system selection until such time as the written examinations for higher responsible positions have been satisfactorily validated and there has been a change in the attitude frequently voiced by the older members of society, that written examinations favor "college kids without common sense."

The purpose of this presentation has been to describe an approach which attempts to increase the objectivity of the rating process by means of refinement. It must be remembered, however, that we know relatively little concerning the predictive value of such ratings. Essential to future refinement is the need for careful research to determine the validity of the patterns of training and experience now required for any position, as well as the validity of the weights assigned to the different kinds of training and experience that are considered necessary or pertinent preparation for performing the duties of the position.

A Floor Plan for a Public Personnel Agency

LOUIS J. KROEGER

ADEQUATE space that is suitably located, properly arranged, and effectively equipped is an important factor in the efficient operation of any plant or office. Public personnel agencies have few problems of layout that are peculiar to their needs, but a consideration of some aspects of planning working space, discussed in terms of the work of a personnel agency, may be of assistance to those having to deal with such problems. The California State Personnel Board has recently moved into expanded quarters after making a conscious effort to acquire space, arrange it, and equip it in the manner which would best serve its own needs and those of the public and of other state departments. The following discussion does not pretend to be an enunciation of any final principles of personnel agency office layout—or even of good principles—but is merely a report of a specific plan which, on the basis of a few months of experience, has been found to be satisfactory.

When the search for space began, the following considerations were set up as guides in selecting the most suitable location and layout:

First, all of the space should be on the same floor of a building, preferably on the ground floor. Having the space all on one floor is simply a matter of convenience. If that floor can be the ground floor it mini-

mizes the structural problems caused by heavy equipment or the concentration of large numbers of people. Furthermore, the relatively large number of citizens and employees who visit the office of the personnel agency to consult bulletin boards or to get information or advice do not create a problem in elevator traffic. If it became necessary to get space spread over more than one floor of a building, then some effort was to be made to have as accessible as possible those quarters which serve the public directly.

Second, since the personnel agency serves all departments of the government, as well as the general public, the building should be centrally located in relation to other state office buildings.

Third, deliberate attention was to be given to obtaining adequate lighting, proper ventilation and air conditioning, safeguards against unnecessary or unpleasant noises, and all other facilities affecting the physical well-being of the employees, and therefore the quantity and quality of their work.

Fourth, it was necessary that the building be adequately equipped to meet all needs for major and minor power outlets, lines for communication systems, and plumbing fixtures. There was need for sufficient flexibility in these matters within the building to make it possible to fit them into the most desirable office arrangement.

Fifth, the building obviously must conform to acceptable architectural and structural standards.

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GENERAL LAYOUT

TO MEET the foregoing needs, the State of California acquired by lease 26,000 square feet of ground floor space in an "H" shaped building in which there were no permanent interior partitions. It was thus suitable for rearrangement to suit such working plans as the agency desired. The building met all the foregoing conditions. It is situated across the street from the State Capitol and from one of the Capitol extension office buildings, and is one block from the business center of the City of Sacramento. By agreement with the owners, excellent facilities were provided for lighting and air conditioning and for the interior arrangement of the building. A floor plan in simple outline accompanies this article, and may be consulted in connection with the following discussion.

The "H" shape of the building in effect provides three working areas, consisting of the two principal wings and the small connecting area which forms the crossbar of the "H". By agreement with the owner, the previously existing main entrance to the building, which was in the east wing, was moved to the connecting section, and an attractive entry way was developed and landscaped. As shown in the floor plan, the location of the entrance and information counter provides a single point at which all visitors to the office can be received and routed to whatever point in the office their business requires.

The balance of the central connecting area is given over to a supply unit and to a mail and shipping room. These rooms are separated from the information counter by a sound-proof wall. This keeps the reception area entirely free from disturbance, despite the fact that on the other side of the wall mimeograph machines and other equipment are constantly and noisily at work.

IN THE east wing of the building, facing on L street, one compact unit is given over entirely to the activities of the State Personnel Board members and their immediate

clerical staff. A large public meeting room has been provided and appropriately fitted for Board meetings and hearings. A separate room has been provided for the use of the Board members in personal conferences. Another area is set aside for the Secretary of the Board and for the Secretary's clerical staff.

A second row of offices in the east wing is set aside for the administrative staff. These quarters consist of three offices, one for the Executive Officer, and one for each of his two immediate assistants, the Principal Personnel Technician and the Principal Personnel Examiner. A small reception room is used as an office for the secretaries for these three officials, and as a waiting room for callers.

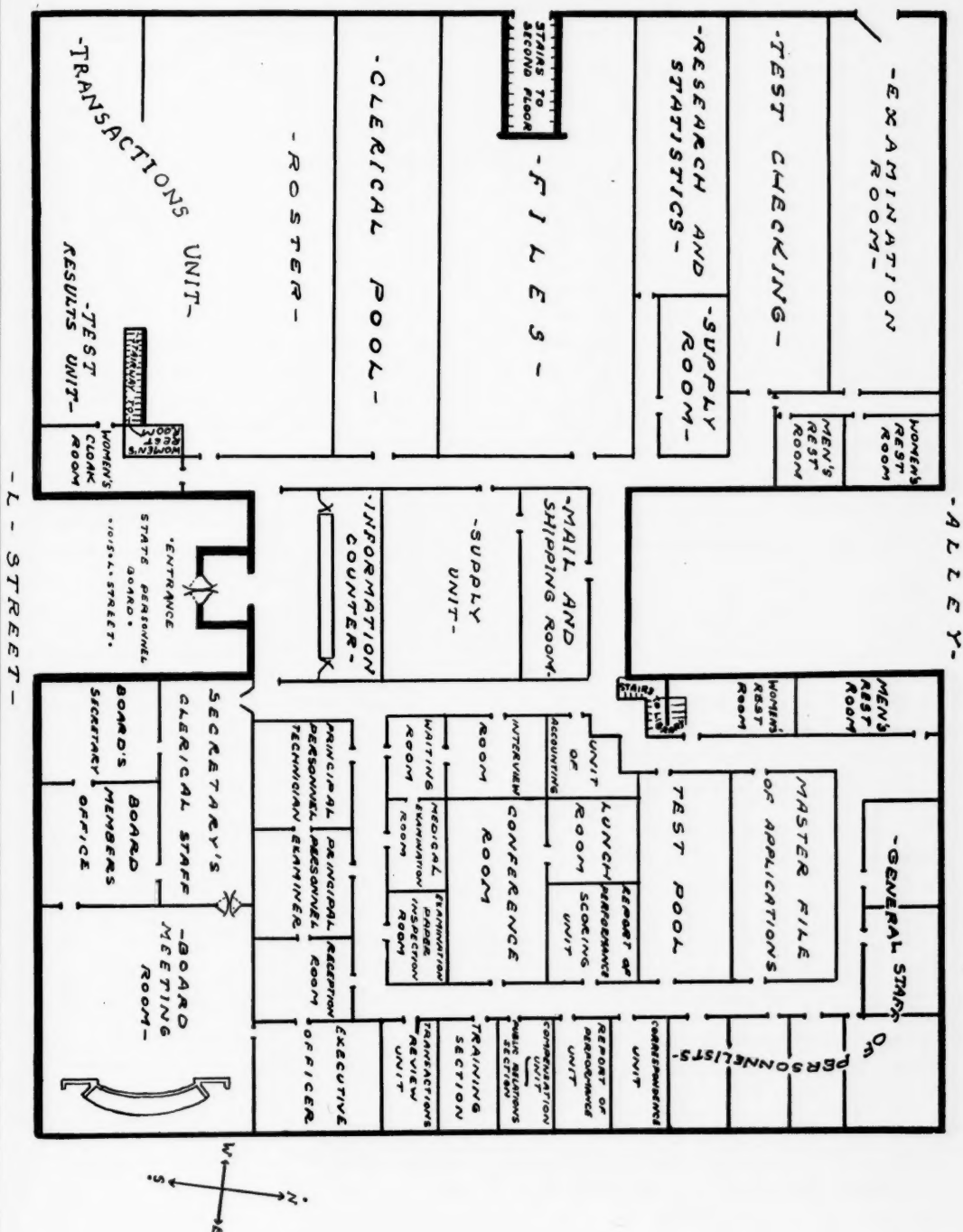
Along the east and north walls of the east wing are a series of smaller offices occupied by staff members engaged in various types of technical activity. From one to three personnelists occupy each of these offices. The debate on the old question of private offices vs. large work areas waxed long and furiously before this arrangement was decided upon. The arguments in favor of private offices, which finally prevailed, were: (1) less distraction; (2) more suitable arrangements for receiving the public; (3) better appearance; (4) reasonable privacy when privacy is required; and (5) more permanent definition and location of functions performed. All have been justified, in contrast to experience in the previous quarters, where technicians worked together in large rooms. As a concession to the advocates of less privacy, and because of the demands of air conditioning and economy, the partitions between these offices are only seven feet high.

THE central portion of the east wing is given over principally to activities immediately associated with administrative and technical operations. In one area is a master file of applications, containing a complete employment history, medical report, and criminal record (if any) of all appli-

FLOOR PLAN FOR A PERSONNEL AGENCY

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cants. A second area is reserved for a pool of all previously used test material, maintained in a card index. Still another room has been set aside for the mechanical scoring of reports of performance. Ideally, this last unit should be placed elsewhere as a part of the unit engaged in mechanical scoring of written tests. At the present time, however, the report of performance plan is still in its early developmental stage; it was therefore desirable to keep the scoring staff immediately available to the technicians engaged in developing the plan. A large conference room is available for training classes, for staff meetings, and as a place where staff members receiving large delegations can conduct necessary meetings.

The principle that the general reception area should be kept as free as possible from those awaiting interviews or meetings has been observed by providing several rooms in this same area. One of these is a waiting room from which candidates may go either into a room set aside for medical examinations or into another room set aside for personal interviews. In the case of the interview room, particular attention has been given to ventilation and soundproofing, in order to make the physical conditions attending the interview as ideal as possible. Another separate room has been set aside in which candidates inspecting examination papers may do so in privacy and quiet. That necessary aid of administration, the accounting unit, is also housed in this part of the building.

Completing the east wing is a small library, which is maintained on a mezzanine floor above the rest rooms. Unfortunately, this space is not sufficient to permit the use of the library quarters for study and research purposes. Instead, it is used simply for storage of books and documents, which are distributed to staff members as required.

TURNING to the west wing of the building, a portion of that area is set aside for an examination room accommodating from 60 to 100 candidates. The examination

room has a separate entrance on Tenth Street to permit candidates to come and go without disturbing the work of the agency. By locking one door, the corridor leading from the examination room into the other offices can be closed off in such a way that rest room facilities are available to those using the examination room without at the same time admitting them to any other part of the building. Many written examinations are held on Saturday afternoons, when the rest of the staff is not at work, and this isolation of the examination room is therefore most useful.

The balance of the west wing is given over to various clerical and mechanical functions as described in the drawing. These units are arranged so that the flow of work from one unit to another is facilitated. Unusual power outlets, such as are required for the operation of tabulating equipment, are in their proper place. A combination of large plate glass "store" windows, skylights, and artificial lighting guarantees adequate light for the most exacting work.

Although they are not all shown in great detail, the provisions made for cloak rooms, lunch room, and rest room facilities are restricted to the use of employees and have proven adequate. Also not shown on the drawing are a number of service entrances which facilitate the receiving of mail, express, and bulky materials, and which provide satisfactory emergency outlets from the building in the event of fire. All entrances to the second floor of the building are entirely separate, so that no other tenant comes in contact with the work of the personnel agency.

ADVANTAGES OBTAINED THROUGH IMPROVED ARRANGEMENT

SOME comparisons with the facilities and layout in the quarters previously occupied may serve to emphasize some of the advantages gained by the new plan.

First, careful preliminary planning of office arrangement made possible the proper laying of lines of communications. Pre-

viously, many desks were so situated in large work areas that adequate telephone and intercommunication instruments could not be provided without causing a confusion of bells and buzzers and without stringing wires across floors in a hazardous manner.

Second, a well-thought-out lighting arrangement has eliminated many old problems. The former arrangement proved inadequate for the following reasons: (1) it cost more because of the need for purchasing many desk lamps; (2) it caused eye strain and forced many employees to buy glasses; (3) it caused fatigue with attendant short tempers and inaccuracies in work; (4) it made a poor impression on the public because of the gloomy aspect of some work areas; and (5) it complicated the ventilating problem because of heat generated by overhead fixtures and desk lamps, which were required where natural lighting was inadequate.

Third, the air conditioning system which was provided for ventilation of the new quarters not only makes the offices cooler and more pleasant, but there has been a striking contrast in that the sealing of the windows to make the new system effective has also served to exclude the noises and odors of passing traffic.

Fourth, there have been many improvements in the organization and work arrangement of the agency. Previous floor plans in this agency and elsewhere have amply proved that walls and corridors often form the lines of unnecessary and unwholesome cleavages within an organization. The new arrangement here described has shown that the organization chart can be imple-

mented in fact by making the arrangement of halls and corridors serve to emphasize the logical lines of authority, responsibility and flow of work. Where technical services once situated in different parts of a building tended each to be self-contained and independent, the fact that they have been placed together has accomplished an effective and natural coordination of effort. Where once the work followed confusing and unnecessary routes because the physical separation of related units made a different flow impossible, now the paths are straight and clear. Where once common services required by all parts of the organization were inaccessible to many, now they are quite available.

CONCLUSION

A FURTHER elaboration of these contrasts might be made, particularly with reference to the relationship between organization and floor plan. Let it suffice to say, however, that the altered arrangement has wrought a noticeable improvement in the functioning of the agency. As already stressed, this article lays no claim to establishing rules of layout. However, several months of experience with the arrangement described have shown that the space is adequate, that it is properly equipped, that it is arranged so that each work area which should be accessible to the public is sufficiently accessible, and that those which should be somewhat separated from public contact are so separated. Finally, the new arrangement places all units in such relationship to each other that the flow of work is expedited.

The Determination of Examination Costs—An Exploratory Discussion

REUBEN HORCHOW

RARELY, if ever, has a civil service commission been completely financed for all the personnel functions which it might perform under ideal conditions. Although some few commissions have attained a fairly adequate level of financing, for the most part merit systems and civil service commissions are woefully starved of funds. Underfinancing is, in fact, a favority device whereby opponents of civil service immobilize the agency and thus defeat the laws. However, all of the blame for lack of funds must not be ascribed to the sinister influences just suggested, nor even to indifference. A large part of the failure to achieve financial adequacy can be charged directly to the civil service commissions themselves.

As a whole, governmental agencies have never attempted to appraise and measure objectively the services they are set up to render to the public, and then make a cost accounting of these services. There are numbers of reasons for this failure and a discussion would entail far more space than this article can command. It is plain, however, that efforts toward the establishment of such accounting procedures are desirable. No successful business organization can, in the long run, succeed without a knowledge of costs, and even huge volume cannot prevent a loss when articles or services are sold for less than cost.

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THE NEED FOR GOVERNMENTAL COST ACCOUNTING

GOVERNMENTAL agencies are free from the profit motive, and one by-product of this condition is that the urge for economical and efficient fiscal administration is not always a pressing influence. So, governmental budgeting is, in large part, a very rudimentary matter; it has few guideposts, such as unit costs and other data upon which sound business budgeting depends. Added to this, governmental spending is usually badly controlled and inequitably distributed.

These phases of fiscal administration are particularly inadequate at the state, county, and municipal levels, where public interest can and should most adequately and effectively be focused. Nevertheless, proper presentation of financial needs might be one of the most effective means whereby a civil service commission could arouse public interest and support. In addition, a well documented budget request might well woo the support of the often very able legislators who are indifferent to a routinely submitted request for funds—a request differing in no respect from those of other departments and offering no further incentive to unusual interest. If requests for funds were presented in such manner as to show just what the commission is delivering for its money, if such requests showed exactly the job to be done and the unit costs of each of the jobs, they would be far more difficult to refuse.

It is true that a commission's budget requests are rarely presented directly to the

legislature or to its committees. Its financial requests must be made through the regular channels of the state or city administration, and it is the central administration which determines in the first instance how much of a proposed program will be financed and how much will be eliminated by failure to finance. But even in this somewhat limited area, a business-like presentation of needs cannot altogether fail of effect, and there is always the possibility of appeal to the legislature for funds beyond those included in the formal administration budget. Few commissions have their hands so tightly bound that they cannot exercise some independent action of this character.

ALL OF this is preliminary to saying that civil service commissions need a continuing analysis of their functions and a continuing cost analysis of each of these functions. Although these functions dovetail into a complete whole of personnel administration, they can be separated for study. Activities singled out for scrutiny might include general administration ("overhead" in commercial terms); record and payroll supervision; position classification activities; research; and examinations.

Even if there were a question concerning the pertinency of some of these classifications, there can be no question as to the desirability of studying the examination function. This activity is found in all merit systems, it is the focus of greatest public interest, and it consumes a very large part of the budget of every civil service or merit system agency. It is the immediate purpose of this article to explore the methods to be used and the questions that will arise in a cost analysis study of examinations.

SOME PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS

THERE are certain preliminary but indispensable considerations which must be clarified before any attempt is made to work out the detail of even such a comparatively simple problem as examination costs. The first of these indispensable preliminar-

ies is the matter of determining accurately the aim of the organization. It may seem rank heresy to make the statement that few civil service commissions at any time definitely know what their aim is except in the broadest of general terms. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that few civil service commissions have a concrete and definitely worked out program which might be compared to the production program of a manufacturer.

Such a concrete program cannot always be visualized and projected, but even accounts of the operations of newly created or installed agencies (and some personal experience with them) seem to indicate that the program is seldom preconceived in anything but the broadest outline. As a consequence, it is usually carried out on a piecemeal basis, a method which invariably invites departure from the original program and modification (not always wise, though sometimes expedient) of the original plan. Under such conditions, to calculate cost for any examination is relatively meaningless because no standard exists, and no standard can exist unless conditions are standardized.

Far more important, however, as a preliminary to any kind of cost accounting, is the organization of the agency along departmental lines. It is generally agreed that such an agency is best departmentalized on a functional basis after a very careful analysis of the objects and purposes of the agency. In large agencies, sound organization is an absolute essential of efficient operation, and even in small agencies it is necessary if controls are to have any meaning or if any standards are to be set. Once the matter of establishing a sound functional organization is completed (and in this the cost accountant must share), it is possible really to come to grips with the problem of examination costs.

IN SOLVING this problem of organization, many questions have already been answered, but immediately this one main

question needs answer: "What items should be included in costs?" Should the cost of recruiting, of publicity, of the application process, and of kindred items be included? Should the cost include a proportion of general overhead? Should the procedures after the setting up of the eligible roster, such as notifications to applicants, be included?

Having answered these and other questions of a like nature, then the examinations themselves must be analyzed and classified with a view to determining whether or not varying procedures are necessary in studying the cost aspects of different types of examinations. Can we follow the identical pattern in the case of unassembled examinations, assembled examinations with or without performance tests, examinations requiring and not requiring interviews, competitive examinations and promotional examinations, and so on through the various categories? Again, examinations for the same classifications vary from time to time in important respects. It would seem a prerequisite that standard procedures for each category of examination be set up before the results of a cost analysis can have meaning. Variations in administration, in interview, in evaluating experience, in verifying qualifications are but a few of the areas where procedures must be standardized.

ADAPTING COST ACCOUNTING METHODS TO MEET SPECIFIC NEEDS

IT IS not within the scope of this article to give the details of a cost-accounting system. Numerous texts are available in which the subject is competently treated. (A short bibliography is included as an appendix.) However, it seems unlikely that a strictly professional job of cost accounting can be done in this field. Many of the costs of any examination, such as the actual construction of the examination itself, are constant—whether there be one or ten thousand applicants. A specious analogy can be drawn between such cost and the cost of machine tools used in producing an item in industry. But the analogy breaks down upon closer

examination, for industry has some control of its production, while public personnel agencies are constantly in a quandry as to the number of applicants to be expected in any particular examination or group of examinations. There are rule-of-thumb calculations for determining these variables which miss about as often as they hit, but nothing really satisfactory.

Nonetheless, cost accounting methods and principles can be applied to the problem, but the necessary adaptations will need the combined resources of the skilled personnel technician and the cost accountant. It is quite possible that the final result might be expressed in terms of a series of formulae, with a table of values for substitution in the formula appropriate to the kind and conditions of the examination. Whatever the result, it will have validity only for the agency in which it was originally developed until a larger and far more difficult job of inter-agency cost comparisons can be studied and developed.

In order that such data might have their greatest value, any study of examination costs should aim to produce results and figures which can be used in other jurisdictions and which can be said to be accurate yardsticks for use in the projection of costs of future operations, that is, for budgeting. Unless careful controls are maintained, cost figures on which reliance can be placed only under certain conditions might easily be used for other seemingly similar situations only to prove quite inaccurate.

SIGNIFICANT COST VARIABLES

ONE of the cost variables which must be taken into account is that which has to do with the agency in which the costs are studied—the organization and functioning efficiency of the agency. This factor may easily be affected by the mere size of the organization. In a small agency with non-specialized functions, the costs of an examination may be substantially different from the cost of a similar examination in a large agency with more elaborate organiza-

tion. Other examples of the variable represented by type and efficiency of organization will readily suggest themselves.

Agencies also differ from each other in more than size, efficiency and organization. The geographic area which they cover must be taken into account. As between a municipal and a state agency, certain cost factors will appear on the cost sheet of the state agency which are absent in the costs of a local agency. Again, in a comparison among state agencies, variations in geographic extent of the jurisdiction may be an important factor in introducing variations in examination costs. Here, the form of organization enters the picture, for agencies with permanent branch offices may differ significantly from agencies which operate from a central office only.

TURNING to the examinations themselves, there are other obvious differences. Those which include performance tests involve expenditures which differ from those which are restricted to pencil and paper tests only. Even in pencil and paper tests, variations are great. Nor must we forget the unassembled examinations. On the answers to these and many other questions, depends, in part at least, the answer to the question of costs.

Analyzing the examination further, what of the interview or oral part of the examination? Is it used? If used, how is it organized, administered, and recorded? Thus, in the interview area alone, a whole series of questions, of which these are only a few, enters into the problem of costs.

In similar fashion, questions as to the method of arriving at experience and training elements must be answered. For instance, what verification of statements on the applications is made? Are all accepted applications graded? Is experience evaluated at all in the interview? What method is used for scoring experience? The list of questions here could undoubtedly be expanded.

Many variations exist between agencies

in all of the processes of examination administration, all of the mechanics of scoring, of combination of scores, of preparation of lists, and of notification of examinees. These, too, must be taken into account. Analysis will undoubtedly reveal differences in every process, in handling of applications, of enclosures, of notifications to ineligible, and in communications relative to examinations while they are in process of completion. Some of these differences may be due simply to organization, some to policy, some to rule, and some to law. But that they affect costs is unquestionable.

To return for a moment to the more general area of discussion, differences in general pay scales of agency staffs cannot be disregarded in any calculation of costs. An examination of scales of pay from jurisdiction to jurisdiction will disclose rather wide variations, and other things being equal, an agency with a generous pay level will show higher costs for the personal service items than will agencies with less adequate pay levels.

POSSIBLE USES OF COST DATA

SOME of the problems to which a satisfactory solution must be found have been stated. Once a real study is undertaken, others will undoubtedly present themselves. That some answers to these questions can be found seems certain; if they are not conclusive answers, they will at least permit a fair degree of accuracy in budgeting. This in itself will be a notable accomplishment, for accurate budget estimating is essential to the continual successful operation of the public personnel agency. Inasmuch as civil service agencies are rarely prime favorites of legislatures, nor even of finance directors, it behooves them to speak the language of budget figures with the greatest possible precision. Nothing is more convincing to a skeptical finance committee than good, sound, simple arithmetic.

Aside from this more important use of cost data, thoroughgoing cost analysis will unquestionably reveal possibilities for more

economical operations in any agency which makes any such study. And this important by-product will result even in very efficient agencies, though in less degree than in those where methods have not been subject to much self-examination.

PLANNING A COST STUDY

MERELY to set out the major problems involved in inter-agency comparisons and not to venture some suggestions as to method of solution would be doing only half the job. Just as the statement of problems is not presented as final or complete, so the suggestions as to solution are not intended to be taken as the authoritative last word. They are intended, rather, to indicate a possible approach which can be varied, modified, or extended as experience is gained in any study. Other possible solutions may readily be suggested. If this statement of problems and methods of solution arouses interest in a further and more complete study, it will have accomplished its purpose.

The first consideration concerns the choice of agencies in which studies are to be made, or from which figures are to be requested. Decision must be made as to the scope of the study, which will, in turn, largely determine whether the choice is to be made on a basis of a wide or narrow sampling. Whether the sampling is wide or narrow will determine how carefully the desired factors of difference must be scrutinized. Every study must work through this phase of organization, and the choice of sources of data will, to a very great extent, determine the validity of the results of the study.

After the initial selection of agencies to be studied, the next step in the process would appear to be classification—an approach familiar to all who have dealt with personnel problems. The agencies which might be considered for study should be classified according to the various differential factors suggested earlier—size, organization, type, area covered, efficiency, salary

scales, etc. Perhaps, too, one of the factors to be considered might well be length and scope of the experience of the agency in preparing examinations.

THE most important step of all comes next—the determination of facts about the participating agencies. Regardless of how the study is made, whether by field staff or by mail, a complete description of each agency must be available. This is not to suggest a detailed survey, but it is evident that a special questionnaire should be completed by participating agencies, covering each phase of the inquiry in which variants occur.

Next, then, will come the gathering of the data. In some cases it may be possible to reconstruct costs for past examinations according to the pattern set up. Such material should be welcomed. But the great bulk of the data should be gathered and compiled as examinations are given and the study should be extended over a sufficient period of time to permit the operation of the law of averages in yielding data on all the variants described. Off hand, it would seem that a period of a year might not be too long. It would be better not to set up any specific time but to let actual results determine when sufficient data had been gathered to furnish valid findings. In the meantime, tentative work with the data as collected would undoubtedly suggest modifications as well as time limits.

It is reasonable to assume that, if the initial agency cost study results in the construction of a formula or a series of formulae, the result of an inter-agency study would probably find expression in much the same manner. The formulae might be much the same, but the values for the variable factors would be more numerous due to the increased possibilities for variations between agencies.

The study of examination costs thus seems naturally to divide itself into two projects, the one preliminary to the other. First a careful study of costs by agency with

a detailed organization of method and technique; after this is accomplished, the scope of the study can be broadened to the inter-agency level.

CONCLUSION

EACH personnel agency is compelled to make some forecast of its operating costs, by means of which it projects its budget. No sound or adequate budgeting procedure can result until and unless good cost accounting methods are employed. Merit agencies have a grave responsibility and cannot shirk it by complaining of inadequate financing until they themselves have exhausted every means to remedy that situation.

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COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

EXTENSION OF CIVIL SERVICE RULES

IN AN earlier issue (April, 1940) the case of *Booker v. Reavy*, 281 N. Y. 318, discussing the right to compel the New York State Civil Service Commission to extend by rule provisions of the Civil Service Law in its discretion to local jurisdictions, (county, town, village and school districts) was reviewed. The court there held that such proceeding, which incidentally involved the Governor's approval of the rule permitting such extension, could not be maintained. A somewhat similar proceeding was brought in *Matter of Madden, et al., v. Reavy, et al.*, 284 N. Y. 31 N. E. (2d) 756, to compel the Commission to extend the rules to a school district in the Town of Eastchester on the theory that the Commission had delayed extending the rules to that district. In the meantime a legislative commission was established to make a study of the extension of the civil service rules to local jurisdictions. The lower court (Appellate Division) directed the Commission to classify the positions in the school district, holding that the law was mandatory and that the fact that a commission had been established to study the problem and recommend legislation was no excuse for not complying with the constitutional requirement of appointment for merit and fitness after competitive examination wherever practicable. (Article V, Section 6, New York State Constitution). The Court of Appeals reversed the Appellate Division and dismissed the petition, stating:

The decision of this court in *Palmer v. Board of Education* (276 N. Y. 222) established no new law governing State civil service. It had, however, the

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salutary effect of placing emphasis upon the mandate contained within the civil service article of the Constitution (Art. V) which, as was pointed out (p. 228) "applies to every position in the civil service of the State", and which neither the Legislature nor administrative officers may disregard. (See, also *Matter of Carow v. Board of Education*, 272 N. Y. 341, 344.)

The record in the proceeding now before us contains no evidence of a disregard by either the Legislature or administrative officers of the State of any mandate in the Constitution relating to civil service.

It does not go beyond common knowledge to say that since 1883, when civil service reform first became the subject of legislative action in this State (L. 1883, ch. 354), there has been consistent progress toward the ideal which became a constitutional objective—the establishment of a system of appointments and promotions in the civil service of the State, and in all civil divisions thereof, according to merit and fitness to be ascertained, so far as practicable, by competitive examinations. (State Const. art. V, § 6.) Indeed it was the State of New York which first made the merit system—based upon appointment and promotion in the civil service by competitive examination—a part of its fixed public policy, by inserting in its Constitution a mandatory provision to that effect. (*Hale v. Worstell*, 185 N. Y. 247, 251.) In the marked progress made toward that ideal obstacles have been met and overcome, some of which were anticipated at the outset and more were unforeseen. (See *Chittenden v. Wurster*, 152 N. Y. 345.)

The present proceeding relates itself to a constant and besetting problem, which was foreshadowed by the first constitutional provision and remains today, viz., the problem of so administering the Civil Service Law that its benefits may be extended to 'all the civil divisions' of the State, by means which are at once practicable and in the best interest of public business and those who conduct it on behalf of government. In meeting that problem as it affects the State at large those charged with the duty of administering the law quite naturally have dealt first with the larger units of government where population is a factor—the counties, cities and villages of the State.

Our decision in the *Palmer* case (supra) and later in *Booker v. Reavy* (281 N. Y. 318) served to give direction to thought by civil service employees in school districts and in other local civil divisions of the State upon the subject of their civil service rights under existing law.

(*Editor's Note:* The new law providing for extension of the civil service law's provisions to county, town, village and school district services as recommended by the legislative commission, was adopted on April 28, 1941, Ch. 885, Laws of 1941)

"COVERING-IN" INCUMBENTS—APPLICATION
TO PROVISIONAL EMPLOYEES

THE peculiar nature of provisional appointments as mere "stop-gap", emergency appointments, was illustrated in the recently decided case of *Fink v. Kern*, 26 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 891 (Sup. Ct., Sp. Term). The petitioner had been appointed provisionally as a dietician in the New York City department of hospitals, after having served a period of time in the position of student dietician. Both of these positions had been placed by the Municipal Commission in the noncompetitive class. When the Commission reclassified the position of dietician in the competitive class, "covering-in" those who held the position at the time of the reclassification, the petitioner claimed the right to be "covered in" without taking the proposed competitive examination. The petitioner relied especially on the customs of the Department of Hospitals to appoint dieticians from among those occupying the position of student dietician, appointments having been theretofore made in the order of seniority. The court emphasized that the petitioner was only a provisional appointee. "Provisional appointments are made primarily with a view to the appointee's qualifications to serve for the period of an emergency, and provisional appointees acquire no vested right to appointment to the position merely by virtue of such temporary or provisional service; indeed, it has been held that provisional employees must make way for the persons on the next eligible list."

As for the "covering-in" doctrine, it is true, stated the court,

... that a mere reclassification of position from a non-competitive to a competitive class does not perforce thereof classify out of office the then legal incumbent in the noncompetitive or exempt class; he is held to be transferred along with his position and to be unaffected by a reclassification. . . . However, that status and coverage obtains and is applicable alone in the instant case to those persons who were actual legal permanent incumbents of the position of dietician and not to those persons holding the position as provisionals when the reclassification . . . became effective.

(Editor's Note: See *Sanford v. Finegan*, 276 N. Y., 70.)

INVESTIGATION OF MUNICIPAL COMMISSION

A GREAT deal of publicity has resulted from the investigation of the New York City Civil Service Commission by a special committee of the New York City Council. The

power of the Council to authorize such an investigation was recently upheld by the New York Supreme Court in *Application of Smith*, 26 N. Y. Supp. 560 (Sp. Term, N. Y. Co.). The Civil Service Commission contended that the state, in setting up a complete system for the administration of the civil service, impliedly denied to the City the power to enact legislation with reference thereto. However, the court pointed out that the New York City Charter grants to the city council the right to legislate upon matters affecting the health, safety, and welfare of civil service employees, and to initiate a referendum seeking to change the membership of the Municipal Civil Service Commission. This specific grant of power, stated the court, authorizes an investigation by the City Council. The court further interpreted the provisions of the charter so as to allow one member of the committee to conduct part of the investigation, and to hold private hearings. (The Court of Appeals upheld the lower court rulings in all respects).

NON-CIVIL SERVICE WORKERS IN CITY EMPLOY

IT IS important for the civil service administrator to keep in mind the fact that, even when a municipality is operating under civil service laws, some of the work of the city may oftentimes be legally performed by "non-civil service" workers. This was decided in *City and County of San Francisco v. Boyd*, 110 Pac. (2d) 1036 (Cal.). The civil service provision in the City charter declared that "all positions in all departments and offices of the city and county . . . shall be included in the classified civil service. . . ." The court, nevertheless, upheld a municipal contract to employ a civil engineer, without civil service status, for a period of five years, to aid in the solution of traffic and transit problems. The court first indicated that the charter provision specifically excepts "persons employed . . . for expert professional temporary services. . . ." Furthermore, stated the court, a reading of the charter. . .

. . . indicates clearly that it was the intention of the framers . . . that civil service should apply only to persons employed in permanent positions . . . to the end that public service should be free from political shifting and control resulting from changes in administration. . . . The proposed contractor is not to be placed in any position provided for by the charter. He is to be engaged under a contract to do a specific job and all of the assistants which he will employ . . . are to be instrumentalities of his own choosing and for whom he is to be responsible. They do not become

city employees in the sense of that word, as used in reference to the classified service, but are to be employees of the engineer whose contract requires that he supply the city with estimates, plans, programs and reports, such as will enable the municipality to advance the public welfare by the improvement with respect to which his services will be rendered.

RECLASSIFICATION FROM UNGRADED TO GRADED SERVICE

SOcial investigator positions in the Board of Child Welfare of the City of New York were, prior to September 21, 1938, in the ungraded City service. The salary range for social investigator was from \$1,200 to as high as \$3,000. A reclassification of these positions into the graded service set up the following grades: social investigator \$1,800 to \$2,400; assistant supervisor \$2,400 to \$3,000; supervisor \$3,000 to \$3,600. In adopting the new classification the Municipal Civil Service Commission provided the following conditions:

1. All persons of the title of Social Investigator and Special Investigator in the Board of Child Welfare lawfully performing the duties pertaining to such titles and receiving the salaries lawfully attaching thereto are hereby continued in such titles, duties and salaries regardless of the classification hereinafter set forth.
2. All supervisory positions in the Board of Child Welfare shall be filled by promotion examinations to be hereafter ordered in accordance with the titles and grade ranges hereinbefore set forth.
3. No person shall perform supervisory duties in the Board of Child Welfare unless such persons shall have passed appropriate competitive examinations and been certified therefrom.

The petitioners in *Beggs v. Kern et al*, 284 N. Y., 32 N. E. (2d) 529, claimed that the Commission had no authority to exclude them from the grades and assignments in accordance with the salaries they had already been receiving, and that the requirement that the incumbents pass a promotion examination before they may be assigned to perform supervisory duties was in derogation of their civil service rights. The court sustained the Commission's reclassification and denied the right of the petitioners to be assigned in supervisory positions without the requirement of promotion examinations. The court, however, held that the Commission had to regrade the social investigators so as to protect their salary grades as among the social investigators themselves, even though the salary grades for social investigator and the supervisory positions might overlap.

Discussing this problem of reclassification

attempted by the Commission under its reclassification, the court stated:

The plain intent of that resolution is that, though positions in the competitive class of the social service in all departments of the City of New York should be classified and graded as provided in the resolution, yet that the classification and grading should not apply to such positions while held by persons theretofore appointed and who at that time had the title of social investigator, and that the titles, salaries, duties and status of the incumbents should remain unaffected by the grading of positions as provided in the resolution.

Grading of positions previously ungraded confers upon the incumbents some advantages not previously enjoyed and subjects the incumbents to some new disadvantages. An incumbent may not thereafter be demoted to a lower salary grade at the will of the department head; nor may he be promoted to a higher salary grade or assigned to duties not appropriate to the title of the graded position without taking appropriate examination for promotion. The Civil Service Law (Cons. Laws ch. 7) determines the effect of the grading. The Civil Service Law does not in express terms confer upon a civil service commission power to grade positions in a department and at the same time to provide that the grading shall not affect the salaries, duties and status of present incumbents of such positions; but the commission urges that such power should be read into the law by implication, for otherwise reclassification and grading of positions in the public interest will be unduly obstructed. In the courts below the incumbents of positions appointed under the title of social investigator have successfully urged that not only did the commission lack power to place any condition or limitation upon its attempted grading of position but also that the resolution as adopted must be given the unintended effect of conferring upon each incumbent the right to be placed within that salaried grade which, under the terms of the resolution, has a salary range which would include the salary he is receiving regardless of whether the incumbent is holding rank and performing duties appropriate to the title of the positions in that grade.

The situation of these incumbents would be anomalous if the provisions of the resolution which exclude them from the regrading were given the intended effect. So long as an incumbent continues to occupy the position he now holds, the position would no longer be ungraded and the salary could no longer be decreased at the will of the department head; yet the incumbent would not occupy a position which falls within any grade provided in the resolution itself. In effect, each position would constitute a separate grade and any change in the rank, functions or salary of the incumbent would constitute a change of grade. We agree with the courts below that by no fair implication can there be read into the statute an intention to confer upon the Civil Service Commission a power to adopt a resolution which would have such an extraordinary effect.

The intent of the Civil Service Law is that there shall be grading of positions in a department where grades can be fixed reasonably with due regard for the public interest. The Civil Service Law does not contemplate that where such grades may be fixed reasonably, positions may be graded for persons appointed in the future, while the positions in the same service remain ungraded, so long as they continue to be occupied by incumbents previously appointed, though the incumbents have the same powers and duties as those appointed to positions in that service thereafter. It follows that the incumbents whose positions, while

occupied by them, have been excluded from the grades fixed for positions in the same service when filled by later appointment, are entitled to an order directing the Civil Service Commission to place their positions in an appropriate grade. It does not follow, however, that any appropriate grade in which they must be placed has been established by the resolution of the Civil Service Commission, or that the resolution must be given an effect directly contrary to its expressed intent so that the positions occupied by the present incumbents will be included in the grades now provided by the resolution from which under the terms of the resolution they are excluded.

COMPENSATION—SUFFICIENCY OF CITY APPROPRIATION

THE non-payment of compensation lawfully earned by a civil service employee cannot be justified on the ground of insufficiency of city funds. This was the broad ruling in *Rappaport v. City of Lawrence*, 33 N. E. (2d) 290 (Mass.) The facts in that case, however, appear narrower than the ruling, since there had been a lawful appropriation for the salary of the complaining employee, but the appropriation was wasted when city authorities used it unlawfully. The reduction in salary of the civil service employee could be accomplished only by compliance with civil service provisions requiring just cause given in writing before the reduction. The court stated that broad principle as follows:

The failure of a city to appropriate sufficient money to pay the salaries or wages of those in the classified public service, without taking lawful measures to reduce their number or their compensation, does not affect its obligation and liability to pay them. The city . . . cannot remain inactive, permit the employees to work at the rate of wages lawfully fixed, and then set up a lack of money as an excuse for not paying them.

(Editor's Note: This is not the general rule but must be deemed a departure from it because of the special circumstances which prevailed).

IMPROPER EXAMINATION RATINGS

THE necessity for objective standards in competitive civil service examinations was again emphasized in *In re Quinn*, 24 N. Y. Supp. (2d) (Sup. Ct., Erie Co.). "In fairness to all candidates a definite, permanent objective standard should be adopted by the examiner not only in aid of his own exactness, but to assist the court in the event of a review, or as a guide for other examiners of equal ability and experience." The court permitted a re-rating of the petitioner's test in an examination

for promotion to the office of Captain of the Buffalo City Police. Without specifying clearly why the standards used were not objective, the court contented itself with the statement that this fact was "borne out upon the trial." The court went further, and specifically set aside ratings in three of the written questions on the ground that the answers of the petitioner were actually correct, though marked incorrect. And the court also ruled that the action of the commission in referring the petitioner's appeal from his rating back to the examiner who had originally assigned the grade was unjust, arbitrary and unlawful.

(Editor's Note: The general rule, as often stated by the New York Court of Appeals, is undoubtedly contrary to what the court in this case held. The courts have invariably declined to review ratings in examinations except in the clearest cases of fraud, gross irregularity or utter abuse of discretion in the conduct of the examination).

ADMINISTRATIVE DISCRETION IN APPOINTMENT

IN *Neal v. Williams*, 149 S. W. (2d) 516 (Ky.), the court upheld the power of an appointing officer to refuse to make an appointment where the list of those certified for appointment was reduced to less than the three prescribed by the civil service statute. Although the statute did not state that the appointing officer could not make an appointment if less than three were on the certified list, still the court will recognize his discretionary power to refuse to appoint the one person on the list. The statute is construed as "meaning that it is the duty of the Commission to certify to the appointing authority the names of the three persons standing highest on the available list for a given position, and also that the appointing authority has a right, speaking generally, to make his selection from a list of three candidates."

CERTIFICATION—POWER TO CORRECT ERRORS

RECENT cases have considered the power of a civil service commission to annul its own determination after certifying employees as eligible for civil service positions. In *Wolff v. Hodson*, 285 N. Y. 197, 33 N. E. (2d) 90, the New York City Civil Service Commission was denied the power to annul its original certification of an eligible even if the Commission had erred in its determination of his experience

qualifications. The Court recognized no inherent power in the Commission to take such action, especially where the case was not one of fraudulent misstatement of experience qualifications on the part of the certified employee. The Court relied on *Matter of Lazenby v. Municipal Civil Service Commission*, 116 App. Div. 135, 101 N. Y. Supp. 5 (1906), Aff'd 188 N. Y. 588, 81 N. E. 1172 (1907). In that case, the court stated:

The question of fitness and eligibility it was the duty of the board of civil service commissioners to determine, and the certificate which such board made was controlling upon the appointing power. When such appointing power, acting upon the information which it thus acquired, once appointed Lazenby to the office, he acquired good title thereto, and he could be removed only in the manner provided by law.¹

The same rule was applied in *Pape v. Kern*, 26 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 379 (Sup. Ct., Sp. Term). It involved an application of the rule of the Civil Service Commission of New York City forbidding the placing of identifying marks on the examination papers of competing civil service applicants. The court ruled that the Commission could not set aside its certification of an employee on the ground that he had violated the regulation, since it was conceded that he had passed the examination on merit alone. He was involved in no conspiracy to identify his paper, but placed the identifying marks thereon at the direction of the commission's monitor. The court stated the applicable rule as follows: Where a certification results from "(1) illegality; (2) irregularity in vital matters; or (3) fraud. . . , the commission possesses the power to revoke its certification even after the party appointed has attained the status of permanent appointee." The rationale behind the rule is "that the person certified really never was appointed as a matter of law because he was never eligible, and never having been legally appointed such appointment is void *ab initio* and confers no rights upon the appointee."

The above quoted rule received its true application in *Ferdinand v. Moses*, 26 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 382 (Sup. Ct., Sp. Term). There, after employees had been certified as eligible,

it was discovered that they had, while in a former city position, been guilty of illegally obtaining funds from the city, thus coming within the charter provision barring such employees from ever after holding city employment. The court therefore reasoned that the certification of these employees was void *ab initio*, and the commission could annul its own determination of eligibility. An employee of the type here involved "is but a usurper; he acquires no rights or status and may be summarily ejected. . . ."

CERTIFICATION OF ELIGIBLES IN LIEU OF TRANSFER

THE superior force of a charter civil service provision over a rule of the civil service commission was considered in *Ballf v. Civil Service Commission of San Francisco*, 110 Pac. (2d) 478 (Cal. App.). The city charter provided that the commission should certify the name of the person ranking highest on the current list of eligibles for filling a position. A rule of the commission provided for the transfer of permanent employees, upon request, to other positions of the same class, the rule granting power to the commission to disregard in such case the highest on the eligible list. The court recognized the mandatory nature of the charter provision, and granted a writ of mandamus compelling the certification of an eligible who stood highest on the list. "It is a fundamental principle of municipal law," held the court, "that the rule-making power vested by a city charter in a municipal agency must be exercised in conformity with all charter provisions, and that any rule adopted by such agency which has the effect of opening the way to circumvent or nullify charter provisions is, to that extent, inoperative and void."

The trial court, in its judgment, dispensed with the charter requirement that the petitioner serve a probationary period, on the ground that if the commission had complied with the terms of the charter in certifying petitioner's name to the board, he would, at the time of entry of the judgment, have served the probationary period. This portion of the judgment was modified by the court, so that a probationary period was required. "The unequivocal language used in (the charter) shows . . . that actual service, rather than constructive, is required."

¹ Since this case was decided, the Court of Appeals in *Matter of Katz v. Goldwater* 285 N. Y., (May, 1941) held that fraudulent statements in the application voided appointment *ab initio*, and sustained ouster of the employee even after a year's service with the City Department.

APPOINTMENTS TO TEMPORARY POSITIONS

WHERE a statute provides for a method of making appointments to temporary positions and limits the employment to a definite period of time, such as one month, (as did the New York State Civil Service Law, Section 15, Subdivision 3, prior to the amendment which went into effect October 1, 1940), the civil service commission cannot by rule extend the period of temporary employment. In the *Matter of Hilsenrad v. Miller*, 284 N. Y. 445, the petitioner had passed a civil service examination for law case investigator in the State Department of Labor, ranking fifth on the list. The petitioner accepted the offer of temporary employment after others ahead of him on the list declined or failed to respond to the offer of appointment. The petitioner then served continuously from March 1 to September 1, 1938. He was then informed by the department that the civil service commission declined to continue the temporary appointment and that it would be necessary to recanvass the eligible list in order that another temporary appointment might be made. In the meantime, the petitioner was permitted to continue until December 31, 1938, when his services were terminated and a new appointment was made to the temporary position previously held by him. The petitioner claimed that he had served more than the three months required for the probationary service and that the law did not authorize an employment on a temporary status for more than 30 days, pointing to the statute, which provided: "When the services to be rendered by an appointee in the state service are for a temporary period not to exceed one month, and the need of such service is important and urgent, the appointing officer may select for such temporary service any person on the proper list of those eligible for a permanent appointment without regard to his standing on the list."

The civil service commission by rule permitted appointments to temporary positions to continue for a period not to exceed six months. The court held that the statutory limitation as to term of temporary employment could not be extended by a civil service rule. The court said: "... (this is) an administrative measure which presumes to enable an appointing officer to extend without limit the term of a temporary appointment. As such regulation was incon-

sistent with and contravened the provisions of the Civil Service Law, it was not effective to authorize a temporary appointment for a term in excess of one month."

The court, however, held further that the petitioner could not be continued as a permanent employe even though he had served longer than a three month period—the period of probationary service required. It was held that his employment beyond one month was illegal and therefore could not ripen into a legal permanent appointment no matter how long he had served.

EMERGENCY PROVISIONAL APPOINTMENTS

THE familiar principle that a temporary, emergency period appointment does not in and of itself ripen into a permanent appointment in the competitive class was relied on in *In re Smith*, 25 N. Y. Supp. (2d) 452 (Sup. Ct., Oneida Co). In that case a world war veteran had been employed temporarily for an emergency period by the city Veterans' Welfare Bureau as a bookkeeper, and subsequently as a clerk. The statute permitted such temporary employment without examination, but the petitioner's employment continued beyond the date when temporary employment was barred by the statute, although he had failed to pass a competitive examination for the position. The city civil service commission refused to certify petitioner's name on the payroll, whereupon this action was brought to obtain such certification, on the ground that the petitioner was in the exempt class, and that, as an honorably discharged soldier, he could not be dismissed without charges of incompetency and a hearing. The court denied the petitioner's application. "The petitioner has failed to sustain his claim that he held his position in an exempt classification. There is no proof that his position of clerk, is in the exempt class, as defined by Section 13 of the Civil Service Law. Appointment to positions of bookkeeper and clerk are among those which must be made according to merit and fitness, to be ascertained by competitive examination (Const. Art. V, sec. 6). . . ."

The court then referred to the decision in *Koso v. Greene*, 260 N. Y. 491, 495, 184 N. E. 65, 66, where it was pointed out that temporary appointees are exempt from civil service requirements for appointment. The court said: "... and, similarly, as long as they hold such positions, they are entitled to none of the advantages secured by

period of tenure under the civil service rules. . . . Permanent appointments are made without reference to whether the appointee is holding a temporary or provisional appointment to the same position, or how long such appointment has lasted. These appointments are mere stop-gaps, exceptions of necessity to the general rules with respect to the filling of such positions, and are in no sense probationary. While such appointments may on occasion be succeeded by a permanent appointment, this may only be by virtue of examination and eligibility under the civil service laws, and not by reason of any ripening of the temporary or provisional appointment into a permanent appointment.

As for petitioner's contention that he is protected from dismissal without a hearing by virtue of Section 22 of the Civil Service Law, the court held that the section "does not apply to one who has never taken a competitive or qualifying examination for a position in the classified service, nor been legally appointed to a position in the exempt class." (See also *Ackerman v. Kern*, 281 N. Y. 87.)

DETERMINING THE FIELD OF PROMOTION

THE determination by the Civil Service Commission of those positions in lower grades which may be considered a field for promotion to a higher grade position is in the discretion of the Civil Service Commission, in the absence of bad faith or arbitrary or capricious action, it was held in *Matter of Kornbluth v. Reavy, et al.*, 24 N. Y. S. (2d) 514. (Leave to appeal was denied by the Court of Appeals.)

In commenting on the authority of the Commission in this respect, the court said:

The only question before us is the validity of the amended rule. Appellant contends that it contravenes the Constitution and the Civil Service Law and is arbitrary and capricious. In their answer respondents assert that in adopting the rule in question they acted fairly and impartially and exercised their best judgment and adhered to a long-established and sound policy of requiring at least six months' service in a position inferior to the position for which the promotion examination is conducted.

Prior to the adoption of the rule the Civil Service Commission held a hearing thereon at which hearing appellant and all others opposed thereto were accorded full opportunity for the free expression of their opinions. The minutes of that hearing comprise part of the record before us.

We are not concerned with the wisdom or want of wisdom of the rule before us. The courts have no legislative powers. Our function is to interpret and not to alter statutes or rules adopted pursuant to statutory authority. If the true construction of the criticized rule should be followed by harsh consequences that fact cannot influence the courts in administering the law. The responsibility for the justice or wisdom of the rules rests with the Civil Service Commission and the Governor and it is the province of the courts to construe, not to make, the laws. . . .

Because no longer eligible for promotion directly to

the position of assistant deputy clerk, appellant's contention on this appeal is that under the amended rule he and all others similarly situated have been discriminated against in favor of chief court attendants. Appellant may still attain the desired position of assistant deputy clerk through graduation.

We see no merit in this contention. The position of chief court attendant is a higher one than that of court attendant, and carries with it entirely different duties, including supervision of court attendants.

We may not say that respondents and the Governor violated any law in making the classification which they did. We are not warranted in submitting our judgment in place of the body authorized to make the determination. The Commission and the Governor exercised their discretion and unless their decision is illegal, discriminatory, arbitrary or capricious, we may not interfere.

In effect, appellant's argument is that the old rule should have been continued for his benefit. In this he is mistaken.

PRACTICABILITY OF EXAMINATION IN PROMOTION

THE California District Court of Appeals, in two recent cases, ruled that the San Francisco Civil Service Commission abused its discretion in failing to hold promotion examinations. In *Allen v. McKinley*, 109 Pac. (2d) 429, the commission announced an open competitive examination for the position of adjutor, although there were eighteen persons in the next lower rank qualified to take the test. The court referred to the charter provision requiring promotion examinations wherever practicable. This grants discretion to the commission which, however, may not be abused. Here the petitioners established a *prima facie* case of abuse of discretion, especially in view of evidence to the effect that the Commission had given a promotion examination for other positions where only three persons were eligible to take it. The burden was placed, therefore, on the Commission to show by way of defense some substantial reason for making the exception. It failed to meet this burden. Even if it be considered impracticable to hold a promotion examination limited to eighteen employees, the court held, it is obviously not impracticable to hold such an examination among the large groups of civil service employees with the requisite qualifications.

In *Rhodehamel v. Civil Service Board of the City of Oakland*, 109 Pac. (2d) 436, the same court ordered a promotion examination for the position of senior account clerk, open to all intermediate account clerks. The court stated that if there are persons in the next lower rank of the service eligible for promotion examina-

tion, the Board may not determine that a promotion examination is impracticable until it has tried to give such an examination and failed. The court examined in detail all the facts in the situation, the comparative qualifications, duties, etc., and decided that there had been an abuse of discretion by the commission.

DEPARTMENTAL VERSUS SERVICE-WIDE PROMOTION

THE New York Civil Service Law (Section 16) relating to promotions provides that "vacancies in positions in the competitive class shall be filled, so far as practicable, by promotion from among persons holding positions in a lower grade in the department, office or institution in which the vacancy exists." Promotions are required to be made, of course, after competitive promotion tests. The New York City Civil Service Commission held city-wide promotion examinations. It established two kinds of lists: (1) A promotion list in which was listed the names of employees by departments. This departmental list was used in filling vacancies in the particular department for which the list was established. (2) A city-wide list, on which the names of all successful eligibles for promotion were listed in the order of relative standing regardless of department. This list was to be used only after the departmental list was exhausted, and could be used in filling vacancies in any department in the absence of a departmental list.

In *Matter of Cornehl v. Kern*, 285 N. Y., the court held that the statute did not authorize the Civil Service Commission to hold city-wide promotion examinations, nor to certify from a city-wide list to fill positions that may only be filled after promotion examination. Such vacancies, the court held, may be filled only from among those serving in lower positions in the same department who shall have qualified in a promotion examination. The Appellate Court in its opinion stated:

While it undoubtedly is the fair intendment of Section 16 of the Civil Service Law, above quoted, that appointments by promotion are to be preferred over appointments from open, competitive eligible lists, it is equally clear that, in filling vacancies by promotion, appointments are required to be made, so far as practicable, from among those holding positions in a lower grade in the department in which the vacancy exists.

We think that, in order to carry out this direction of the statute, eligibles to promotion examinations should

be limited to those in the departments where the vacancies exist; or, at least, appointments to such vacancies should be limited to departmental lists. In other words, we deem it to be a part of the declared policy of the State concerning Civil Service appointments, that promotions must be made from among those in the various departments where the vacancies exist, unless such departmental promotion appointments are impracticable, and that this policy cannot be defeated merely because it might be more economical to hold promotion examinations less frequently, as undoubtedly would be the case in the event City-wide lists are to be exhausted before departmental lists are renewed.

We think that the limitation in the statute as to practicability does not mean that mere convenience of the Civil Service Commission, or economy may defeat the declared policy of departmental promotions. It might well be that in a particular department, or office, there would be no eligibles for promotion to the position sought to be filled; or there might be other practical difficulties preventing the holding of departmental promotion examinations, but there is no showing of such practical difficulties under the facts in this case. In fact the respondents have not attempted to assert any such difficulties to sustain their action. They say, in effect, that they think that the method they have adopted is the superior one. If such is the fact, the proper procedure, (so long as we have a government of laws), is to petition the legislature to amend Section 16 of the Civil Service Law.

While we do not deem it necessary to determine whether City-wide promotion examinations may be held for identical positions, we do hold that appointments may not be made to vacancies in positions in the competitive class by promotion, except from among those holding positions in a lower grade in the department in which the vacancies exist, unless it appears that it is not practicable to fill such vacancies by promotion from within the department.

We hold further that a City-wide promotion list is not the proper place from which to secure appointees to fill vacancies where no departmental list exists; and that the proper procedure is the holding of a new promotion examination if there are persons in the department eligible for such examination. To require those in the department to wait until so-called City-wide promotion lists are exhausted before preparing new departmental lists, would defeat the purpose of Section 16 of the Civil Service Law, even though obedience to the requirements of the law might require more frequent promotion examinations.

ABOLITION OF UNNECESSARY POSITIONS

ANOTHER departure from the general rule laid down by the courts not to interfere with the abolition of unnecessary positions is presented in *Matter of O'Rourke v. Graul, et al.*, 24 N. Y. S. (2d) 819, where the question at issue is whether the Commissioner of Public Works had the power to abolish the position of a Superintendent of Streets provided for in the City Charter of the City of Saratoga Springs, New York.

The petitioner was appointed after competitive examination in February, 1925, and held the position until December 31, 1939, when he was informed by the Commissioner of Public

Works that his position had been abolished. No action had been taken by the City Council. The Charter provided: "Each Commissioner shall be entitled to such deputies, employees and laborers, and at such compensation and with such bonds as the council may determine; appointments to be made by the head of each department."

It was the contention of the petitioner that the Commissioner of Public Works had no power to abolish the position. The court held that the Charter gave no power to a Commissioner to grade positions; that this power was vested in the City Council alone; that the City Council could not delegate to a head of department legislative power to grade an office or position, although it could delegate the power of making appointments to positions. It was claimed further that since the action of the Council was taken by resolution, it did not constitute a legislative manual. The Charter provided that "a substantial compliance with any of the provisions of this Charter shall be deemed a full performance thereof." The court held that the resolution possessed

... for all practical purposes the substance of an ordinance even though it did not have the form thereof. But most important of all, not only this position, but all other positions under departmental heads, were either created by this resolution or else they have never legally existed during the intervening years. Manifestly to quibble at this late date over the form of action taken by the council as to creation of these offices would merely be an exercise in legal dialectics. The gist of the matter is that petitioner's position was created by a legislative act and can only be abolished by a similar legislative act.

DISMISSAL—EXCLUSIVE STATUTORY PROVISIONS

USUALLY the prescribed statutory method for dismissal of civil service employees is interpreted by the courts to be exclusive, so that a dismissal made in any other manner is given no effect. This was the decision in *In Re Geis*, 19 Atl. (2d) (Pa.) where the statutory procedure was the usual one, that is, written charges followed by a hearing. The petitioning civil service employee had been reinstated on condition that he sign a resignation which was to take effect if he became drunk on duty in the future. The court denied the right of the city authorities to dismiss the employee on the basis of the happening of the condition stated in the resignation. Reinstated employees are granted by the civil service statute the same tenure rights as are granted to those originally

appointed, and a basic element of these tenure rights is the guarantee of a dismissal only after charges and a hearing. Thus, a dismissal could not be based solely on the resignation of the employee. To give effect to the conditional resignation, held the court, would be to allow a civil service employee to hold a civil service position in violation of clear civil service requirements.

THE settled rule that a dismissal in violation of civil service requirements will be set aside was reaffirmed in *Seltzer v. City of Reading*, 17 Atl. (2d) 872 (Pa.), where the court ordered reinstatement of civil service employee discharged without any preferment of charges, as required by the state civil service law. The fact that the employee was appointed to another position did not excuse the violation of the civil service statute, the court ruled.

SUFFICIENCY OF CHARGES IN DISMISSAL

THE question of whether a dismissal is justified by the evidence comes frequently before the courts. In all cases, it is necessary to ascertain the specific language authorizing the dismissal. Thus, a rule of the civil service commission of the City of Fort Smith, Arkansas, allowed a dismissal of a civil service employee for "behavior . . . unbecoming to a gentleman or of such nature as to bring disgrace or disrepute upon the department or any member thereof. . . ." The Court relying on this broad language, sustained the dismissal of an employee, who, in a prior action against the commission, placed in his petition "scurrilous and defamatory allegations against the mayor of the city and board of civil service commissioners attributing the action of the mayor and board in discharging him to corrupt and impure motives and to dishonesty on their part, and to domination by some political boss in the city." This was held to be behaviour "of such nature as to bring disgrace or disrepute upon the department. . . ." The defamatory statements in the employee's petition were deemed by the court to have no relation to the action he was bringing, so that they were not privileged statements. *Ward v. City of Fort Smith*, 148 S. W. (2d) 164 (Ark.)

The same principle was applied in *Kearns v. Sherrill*, 30 N. E. (2d) 805 (Ohio) where a statute provided that dismissed members of

the police force have the right to appeal from the order of the municipal civil service commission to the courts, and the courts may determine the sufficiency of the cause of removal. It was held that the court was limited to a consideration of the sufficiency of the evidence justifying the removal, and may not arbitrarily reinstate a police officer to his position on the ground that in its opinion the punishment prescribed is too severe. Here, of course, the jurisdiction of the court was limited by the terms of the statute.

RULES OF EVIDENCE IN DISMISSAL HEARINGS

CONSIDERABLE leeway is permitted in the conduct of administrative hearings to determine the sufficiency of charges to justify dismissal of a civil service employee. In *Keith v. Civil Service Board of City of Phoenix*, 111 Pac. (2d) 57 (Ariz.), the civil service statute specifically provided that civil service boards, in conducting hearings, are "not bound by technical rules of evidence and . . . no informality in the matter of taking evidence will invalidate any order or decision of the board." The court, therefore, held that a discharged civil service employee could not complain that hearsay evidence was admitted at the hearing resulting in his dismissal.

DISMISSAL DURING PROBATIONARY SERVICE

THE California State Civil Service Act requires that, if a probationer is dismissed during the six months probationary period, he must be given written reasons, and a report of separation must be filed with the State Personnel Board prior to the expiration of the probationary period; otherwise, the appointment shall become permanent.

The only reason given for dismissal of petitioners was that their services were "unsatisfactory". Such reason, it was held, was insufficient to satisfy the requirement that reasons for dismissal must be given to a discharged probationer. *Brown et al v. State Personnel Board et al* 43 Cal. App. (2d) 69. Furthermore, reports of separation of four of the petitioners

were not filed until more than six months after the date of their appointment, although they were notified of their dismissal before the six months had elapsed. The law provides that reports of dismissal must be filed with the Board before the end of the six months period.

PENSION RIGHTS—TIME OF COMMENCEMENT OF SERVICE

PROVISION of the New York City charter granting pensions to wives of deceased sanitation employees "who shall have been ten years in the service in said department," was construed as intending to include within the service period the time that one is employed as an "extra" sweeper, even though during such time the employee was not called for regular service, and received salary only on a per diem basis. The court (4 to 3) held that "extra" sweepers are regular civil service members of the uniformed force, duly appointed as such, and therefore, entitled to civil service rights. The fact that the city comptroller, during this "extra" period, failed to deduct a portion of the employee's salary for the pension fund did not deprive the widow right to a pension. An "extra" sweeper is concededly not in the category of emergency help, the court held, but is a regular assistant to the full time employees. *Verdecanna v. Carey*, 33 N. E. (2d) 58 (N. Y.) (Chief Judge Lehman, dissenting, pointed out that by the charter, "Men employed as extra drivers or extra sweepers are . . . not included in the number of 'drivers' or 'sweepers' who, by the express terms of the statute, are included in the uniformed force. Not only is the employment temporary, but the services performed and paid for are necessarily intermittent or occasional." Furthermore, the charter pension provisions specifically provide for deduction of three per cent of the "weekly or monthly pay" of each member. In this case, the deceased, while employed as an "extra" sweeper, received only per diem compensation, and not "weekly or monthly pay," so that he could not have been within the class of employees contemplated by the statute. Two justices concurred in the dissenting opinion).

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY JEAN CHARTERS

Middle Management. M. C. H. Niles. Harper & Brothers. New York. 1941. 270p. \$3.00.

In the preparation of this book, Mrs. Niles has not produced a profound philosophical dissertation on management problems and she does not profess to do so. She has been successful, however, in producing a document which brings together many highly stimulating suggestions and much useful information for junior administrators who are active in that important area immediately below top management and above the supervisory and lower levels of a large organization. Although *Middle Management* is focused primarily on private enterprise, its major implications are equally applicable to governmental activities. Those engaged in public personnel administration will profit from the book because of its approach to general management problems, the part it recognizes the personnel function should play in the management of a large enterprise, and the practical short case histories that have been selected for illustrative purposes by the author from her wide experience as a management consultant.

Many significant management problems are discussed and illustrated in the several chapters of the book. Suggestions are made for the use of the junior administrator in dealing with his superior, his subordinates, and other junior executives. The devices which can be used to coordinate the activities for which the junior administrator may be responsible are also appropriately covered. The junior administrator's responsibilities for furnishing real leadership for his subordinates are stressed. The importance of proper organization structure is adequately treated. The relationship between this structure and the personnel of an organization is clearly demonstrated. In this connec-

tion, Mrs. Niles is to be highly complimented for not falling into the common error of assuming that the official relationships among employees, supervisors, junior administrators, and top management are always in terms of an administrative hierarchy where authority is transmitted from the top downwards, and where ideas and suggestions may be submitted from the bottom upwards. She has appropriately emphasized the great need for "crosswise relationships" in which administrators and supervisors in a given division of an organization work directly and closely with administrators and supervisors in other divisions when their work must be correlated or when their activities influence each other. This becomes extremely important at the level where the junior administrator operates. It is a relationship that cannot be properly shown on a two-dimension organization chart or explained in terms of orthodox hierarchical administrative channels.

Public personnel agencies and officials are sometimes criticized for not appreciating the practical operating problems with which officials in the departments and agencies of their respective governments are faced. A certain school of personnel workers is similarly reproached for attempting to make personnel administration a mysterious practice which cannot be understood by supervisors and administrators outside the personnel office and which can be appreciated in all its subtleties only by those specially initiated under proper sponsorship. Claims have also been made that the internal management of the larger personnel agencies in some jurisdictions has been inadequate. These criticisms are often justified. A careful reading of *Middle Management* by personnel workers should aid in correcting these faults, for no one can study Mrs. Niles' book without appreciating the broad problems

with which the general administrator is faced, the methods and devices which he must use for meeting his responsibilities, and the general type of person which he must be to meet with success.

In her chapters on "Developing Supervisors," "Organizing His Own Job," "The Junior Administrator as Leader," "Handling Suggestions: A Means for Developing People," and in other chapters throughout the book, Mrs. Niles deals with many problems that are of direct concern and immediate interest to personnel workers. A concentrated discussion of personnel problems is included in the chapter on "Dealing with the Rank and File," a title which sheds light upon the author's attitude toward these matters. Personnel specialists may be disappointed in the subject matter content of this latter chapter since it is not detailed and does not exalt personnel techniques. Nevertheless, a reading of the entire book and a rereading of this particular chapter cannot fail to impress these specialists with the fact that personnel administration is such an integral part of the management process that it cannot be neatly separated from a discussion of general management problems and conveniently isolated in a single portion of the book. This is stressed by the author who, after briefly discussing the part which able personnel workers can play in the work of an organization, points out that "the personnel function, however, is inseparable from management itself. The responsibility of the administrative men is not decreased although it may be eased by the knowledge, contact, and wisdom of the personnel specialists. Only by the cooperation of the administrators, senior and junior, can a thoroughgoing and effective policy be framed, carried out, and improved." This approach, far from disparaging the personnel function, places that function in proper perspective and emphasizes its great contribution to general management.

During recent years much has been heard about the selection of persons to head sizable personnel agencies. We have witnessed some rather unsatisfactory results of the efforts made by examining committees and officials who have valued apparent technical specialism above management ability for people who are to fill these highly responsible top posts in some of the larger agencies. In this connection, these examining committees and officials

(partly as atonement for their sins) and personnel workers themselves (who are too frequently inclined to become lost in the technical niceties of their particular specialties) can well afford to take to heart the implications of the following remarks which reflect the general character of the book:

... although a specialist must know his technical material, the good administrator does not necessarily know the techniques but he must grasp the broad essentials. He may add little by little to his knowledge of the specialties committed to his charge. The degree of knowledge needed will depend greatly upon his own situation and the degree to which in his judgment he can trust the competence of the specialists working under him. The higher an executive rises in rank the less important is specific knowledge of the work lower down. Indeed, this specific knowledge is the only factor which varies greatly from one department to another. . . .

... Top officers are chosen less and less for specific knowledge and more and more for their breadth of vision and their capacity to exercise the means of control. They need the capacity to see the broad implications and trends, to understand where the business is headed and how it can avoid the rocks. They must know how to integrate the information which comes to them. They must select and train men under them, both as specialists and as generalists. Their own knowledge must be broad, not necessarily specific; details can be delegated to specialists and the direct supervision to subordinate supervisors. They must exercise the means of control through assistants, through permeating functions, and through reports.

Those interested in advancing the effective operations of government should place *Middle Management* high on their list of books to be read. In it, they will find a needed antidote for the overdose of personnel *expertise* that sometimes threatens to paralyze administration in the public service.

G. LYLE BELSLEY

Office for Emergency Management
Washington, D. C.

How to Supervise People. Alfred M. Cooper.
McGraw-Hill Book Company. New York.
1941. 150p. \$1.75.

Anyone who has ever suggested to the average foreman that he read a book on the principles of man-management is familiar with the not-too-well-concealed look of disdain with which this suggestion is usually met. And this attitude is not difficult to understand when one considers how extremely few of the books on this vital subject are written in a style which is intelligible to the man who has come up from the ranks.

In *How to Supervise People*, Alfred M. Cooper has succeeded in presenting a complete picture of the essentials of supervision in a clear, concise, and forthright manner which will appeal to the foreman, the superintendent, the executive, or the aspirant to any of these positions. The brevity of the book attests to Mr. Cooper's ability to analyze and to set forth problems and their solutions with the greatest economy of words. The book is written in common, breakfast-table English, utterly devoid of technical terms and abstruse allusions.

From the first page to the last, the reader is aware of an unusually clear ring of authority from each of the thoughts expressed. This is accounted for by the author in his preface, in which he explains that the book was not written by him to express his own theories and opinions. This volume is the result of twenty years of conference work with thousands of executives and supervisors, concentrating on the proper methods to use in supervising people, and represents the consensus of this group whose aggregate experience totaled about 100,000 years. Not only has Mr. Cooper made a valuable contribution to literature on management, but he has offered a convincing testimonial to the conference method as a means of arriving at sound and logical conclusions in working out group problems.

The book opens with an extremely well-done chapter on how to prepare for a supervisor's job, and proceeds in logical order to survey the supervisor's goals, what he expects from his subordinates, and what his workers have a right to expect from him. The remainder of the book deals with the handling of specific problems, such as building loyalty and job interest, promoting cooperation, hiring and firing, reprimanding effectively, and the development of understudies. In the closing chapter, "The Supervisor as a Teacher," Mr. Cooper gives a step-by-step account of successful conference leading, explaining the various techniques employed to gain acceptance of new ideas and practices. An exceptionally fine list of questions for discussion has also been included.

Many books have been written on the subject of supervision, and with improved management methods receiving continued recognition as an essential to profitable production, the publication of many more is a certainty. Few foremen will read them, un-

fortunately, because the majority will be too complex and too involved to have any meaning for him. To keep the subject vital and practical, there is a definite need for more authors like Mr. Cooper to apply the deft hand of the "country doctor."

EVERETT R. CONOVER

Home Owners' Loan Corporation
Chicago, Illinois

Retail Personnel Relations. O. Preston Robinson. Prentice-Hall, Inc. New York. 1940. xvii, 565p. \$5.35.

With recent developments in government and private industry focusing a renewed attention on the importance of efficient, adequate personnel administration, *Retail Personnel Relations* is published at an opportune time. In an interesting manner the author presents information on personnel policies, procedures, and operations which should prove valuable to those concerned with improving employee-employer relations.

In general, the author points out, retail stores have been slow to recognize the importance of employee relations problems, not realizing that carefully selected and well-trained personnel is a major factor in making merchandizing profitable. Since it is the employees and not the executives who come into contact with customers and are responsible to a large extent for the selling of the merchandise, few retail businesses can hope to be successful without a reasonably happy and satisfied group of workers.

The qualifications and duties of a personnel director, the establishment of wage scales, the maintenance of adequate records, and the attitude of employer toward employee, are a few of the many problems which are discussed. Emphasizing the need for consistency and equity in the handling of all personnel problems, the author states that employees must be convinced of the fairness and impartiality of management in order to enjoy harmonious relations with each other and with the employer. The importance of periodical evaluation of jobs and employee training, and the value of a printed manual to inform employees of the store's personnel policies are also stressed.

Surprisingly little classifying of jobs has been done in retail stores. Consequently, the inclusion of a section on this subject, with de-

tailed instructions for classification methods, is noteworthy.

Several types or methods of outlining and administering a training program are suggested. The store that promotes from the ranks must have well-trained employees ready to step into vacant jobs. Groups of employees who are qualified to hold executive jobs should be given the advanced training necessary to qualify them for promotion to more lucrative positions, thereby reducing operation cost, improving employee morale, and increasing earnings for both employee and employer. Lesson outlines for an initial training program, the teaching materials, and methods of determining the effectiveness of the training program, and employee evaluation are among the topics discussed. Of special interest is the treatment of the part fatigue plays in employee morale and productivity, and its causes and cures.

For many years the retailing field has been faced with serious conditions of irregularity or instability of work. Merchants must assume the blame for employment instability when it is associated with haphazard personnel policies, unfavorable working conditions, and unreasonably long hours and low wages. In many stores workers are often carelessly hired, inadequately trained for the job, and are held responsible for errors and decreases in business which are beyond their control.

Too many books covering personnel policies are compiled and written in a manner too technical and complicated for the average employee and employer to understand. The fact that *Retail Personnel Relations* is compiled and written with clarity and simplicity should greatly enhance its value. Both employees and employers in the retail field will benefit from careful study of this book.

ALMA PRICE

Civil Service Board
Jacksonville, Florida

Police Systems in the United States. Bruce Smith. Harper & Brothers. New York. 1940. xv, 384p. \$4.00.

Bruce Smith is perhaps the best qualified man in America to write a book about police systems. For more than twenty years, as a member of the staff of the Institute of Public Administration, he has served as a consultant and expert to many state and local police departments throughout this country. As a conse-

quence, he is thoroughly familiar with the problems, methods, and organization of the police function of local, urban, and rural communities and of state and federal jurisdictions. Equally important for such an undertaking, he possesses an unusual ability to present his material in a way that holds the interest of the reader, whether layman, student, public official, or police administrator.

A feature of the book is a very interesting outline of the origin and development of the police power and police service in society from the early sheriffs of the Anglo-Saxon period in England. In other chapters, Mr. Smith discusses in detail the problems and methods of police control, of proper police organization, and the many varied aspects of the police service. These chapters contain comprehensive outlines and descriptions of approved and accepted mechanics of police administration.

The book contains many interesting and worthwhile charts and graphs dealing with the various phases of the police problem. *Police Systems in the United States* is a definite contribution to the literature of the field of public administration and will no doubt take its rightful place as one of the standard works in that field.

Personnel administrators will want to read the volume because Mr. Smith is very frank in his criticism of civil service as it influences police administration. Very obviously, Mr. Smith is convinced that civil service has not contributed much to the improvement of police personnel. He points out many serious defects of civil service laws, policies, procedures, and techniques which have an unfortunate effect on police recruitment, promotion, and discipline. His criticism should be carefully noted and studied by all of us who are concerned with the problem of personnel administration. Mr. Smith's conclusions in respect to civil service administration are summed up in one paragraph on page 161:

Based upon the past record of civil service control—the political pandering, the personal corruption, and the bureaucratic rigidity which have so commonly been its characteristics—there is little in the prospect to lend hope for better things in municipal police administration. Two possibilities, however, will always be present: (1) a reform in the civil service regime, such as is taking place in a few centers; (2) an increasing disposition on the part of police administrators to lead the way toward new personnel selection techniques which will square with the realities of police duty. While the evidence of such impending changes in attitude and functioning is none too impressive, it

seems safe to conclude that, whatever the future of our municipal police forces, the civil service system will play a large part in it.

W. L. HENDERSON

City and County Civil Service Commission
San Francisco, California

Principles and Methods of Industrial Training.

C. I. Hovland, R. C. Oberdahn, R. B. Hersey, C. S. Mattoon, and E. F. Wonderlic. Personnel Series No. 47, American Management Association. New York. 1941. 50p.

Psychological Aids in the Selection of Workers.

Edward N. Day, Guy W. Wadsworth, Jr., D. W. Cook, and C. L. Shartle. Personnel Series No. 50, American Management Association. New York. 1941. 43p.

These two pamphlets include eight papers presented at the recent AMA Personnel Conference. The first consists of a general discussion by Dr. Hovland of the basic principles of learning, and four reviews of well-grounded industrial training systems. The second pamphlet includes a discussion of personality tests, their validity and their place in a personnel program; a review of the application of psychological tests to unskilled workers in the Westinghouse Electric Company; and some developments in the field of job analysis and its relationship to testing by the Occupational Analysis Section, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

This reviewer feels at a loss to present more than the above rough outline of these pamphlets without practically copying each article. Certainly it is interesting to read outstanding examples of the progress in these fields. It is particularly important to those engaged in a serious program of psychological testing or training to read of other experiences. However, aside from certain basic principles which run through each group of articles—principles well known to anybody engaged in such work—there is little actual benefit to be derived from them. Each agency, for example, presents its own training problems, and the solution presented as successful in Plant A may not work at all if transplanted to Plant B. Therefore one who reads of their experiences must guard against trying to copy wholesale another training program. Moreover, public agencies, restricted by law, ordinarily do not have sufficient latitude

to use many of the personnel testing tools successfully used in progressive private industries and presented in these papers.

Probably the most significant and most widely applicable information contained in the pamphlets is Dr. Shartle's paper on his work with the Social Security Board in the field of job analysis. He describes the complete data obtained by his organization and presents a picture of real technical progress. Much of his work will be of value to any personnel agency, public or private. Of particular interest to this reviewer are the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* and the development of oral trade questions which he discusses. With questions standardized and validated on 130 occupations, it would seem that real progress has been made in that difficult field of testing for trade knowledge.

To summarize: Because they present practical experiences, the articles contained in these two pamphlets are interesting to any personnel man. They would be helpful to anyone interested in methods of analyzing his own problems. Their chief value, however, will be to spur some of us on to solving our own problems equally successfully.

W. D. HEISEL

Civil Service Commission
Cincinnati, Ohio

Employee Training in the Public Service. A report submitted to the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada by the Committee on Training in the Public Service. Milton Hall, Chairman. Civil Service Assembly. Chicago. 1941. xvi, 172p. \$2.50.

The Civil Service Assembly through a series of committees, undertook the task three years ago of bringing together the best practices in the public personnel field. The first product of this cooperative venture has now appeared in a report of the committee on training.

The report includes an introductory chapter and chapters on "ascertaining the need for training," "instruction—where and by whom," content, methods, the evaluation of training practices, and a central training unit. The first three chapters were prepared by Chairman Milton Hall of the Training and Research Section of the Farm Credit Administration, the fourth by David Stanley, the fifth by the training staff of the Tennessee Valley Authority, the

sixth by Lyman Moore, and the final chapter by Winston B. Stephens. The entire committee participated in criticism and revision of all the chapters. The resulting document should be useful to all who are interested in personnel work. Despite the relative brevity of the report, that generalizations must be made from many detailed experiences, and that the tang of the concrete situation must be diluted, the reader will find a good organization of the field and helpful and stimulating suggestions. Those who are employed in and familiar only with the more traditional types of education should find this account of a large, important, and relatively new development in adult education valuable. With every advance in in-service training, too, the field of pre-entry training is clarified, and the extent and variety of the burden of pre-entry training relieved.

This volume, however, (deserves consideration not merely as a book to be read and referred to, but as a monument to the kind of collaboration among public officials that is having a marked effect on administrative practices in the public services.) The preparation of this book was a national training project in itself, a project which included two distinct stages. A staff of trained research workers visited twenty-odd civil service agencies scattered throughout the country at different levels of government. The data gathered were then put at the disposal of a series of special committees, each of which is undertaking to prepare a report on one of the major functional phases of public personnel administration.

As the information was gathered from all levels of government, so the committees which are synthesizing and interpreting this information represent not only all levels of government, but private industry and education as well.

The training program is so dependent upon a clear view of what one is training for, that a discussion of training must necessarily be built upon one of classification. What lies open to the trainee beyond the present grade? What can be done now which will contribute toward his having a richer, more alert mind, more human insights, twenty years from now, so that he will then be available for responsible higher posts? This note of the future needs is recognized in the report, but the problem of method and content for stimulating this general de-

velopment of the civil servant could have been given fuller treatment to advantage.

One of the most frequently discussed problems in the whole field of in-service training is the allocation of responsibility for training whether with the central personnel agency or with the line officers. The report reveals a growing tendency toward placing this responsibility in the central personnel agency. The fact that many officials of operating departments have developed, over a period of years, extensive training programs does not necessarily reflect a desire on their part to retain exclusive jurisdiction over such activities. Rather they have responded to the pressing need for providing training facilities where the personnel agency has failed to appreciate and understand the training problems of the operating departments and the help they might give to the solution of these problems. Participation by both the operating and the auxiliary agencies will probably be found necessary to achieve the best results. It is to be hoped and expected that the Assembly will carefully collect and evaluate experience on this point.

Despite the necessary summarization of materials, the present reviewer has found many passages in the report which lead him to re-appraise his own training teaching. The present volume will be placed on the shelf by the new book by George Graham that reports on pre-entry training. Both will long be used.

JOHN M. GAUS

University of Wisconsin
Madison, Wisconsin

Education for Public Administration. George A. Graham. Public Administration Service, Chicago. 1940. vii, 366p. \$3.50.

The growth of the career service idea in government work has brought to the fore the question of how universities shall train their students for public administration. In this study, offered by the Committee on Public Administration of the Social Science Research Council, Mr. Graham draws certain general conclusions regarding this question, based on conferences, observations, and interviews at some twenty campuses. The book is divided into two parts, the first dealing with the general problems of university education for public administration, and the second reviewing specific training programs.

The basic theme of the book is that it is definitely the duty of the university to train students for public administration. The universities must decide whether the students are to be trained for federal, state, or local government service, and they must also decide whether to engage in pre-entry or post-entry training.

Vocationally there are four types of work in public administration in which the universities are interested: (1) professional, (2) research in the social sciences, (3) work in auxiliary staff agencies, and (4) managerial work. Each of these constitutes a means of entering the public service as well as a career. Though holding that training for public administration in general is impossible, Mr. Graham states that the universities must prepare students for definite careers in public service without training them for specific jobs. Students should be carefully selected on the basis of their undergraduate academic record, their undergraduate extracurricular activities, their working experience, and an oral interview. The curriculum should include a liberal education, a study of substantive subjects such as political economy, and political science; and tool subjects such as statistics and accounting. There must be, above all, a unity of knowledge and a unity of scholars.

In reviewing the work of the various institutions which train for public administration, Mr. Graham divides the programs into three categories; (1) those with no special program for public service training; (2) those definitely interested in public service training primarily of a post-entry nature; (3) those interested in training for public administration in the pre-entry field. In dealing with these specific programs, Mr. Graham gives a description of each, followed by a short criticism. Those persons who are interested in specific details concerning each of these programs will probably have fault to find with the manner in which they are handled. However, this reviewer feels that the description, followed by the criticism, gives an adequate over-all picture of exactly what is being done today in the steadily expanding field of education for public administration.

This is an excellent book, well written and well organized. Many of the ideas and suggestions advanced in the first part, particularly,

are thought provoking, and the book as a whole holds the reader's attention throughout.

WILLIAM F. HOWELL

University of Southern California
Los Angeles, California

Union Policies and Industrial Management, by Sumner H. Slichter. The Brookings Institution. Washington, D. C., 1941. xiv, 597p. \$3.50.

The student of labor economics or industrial management will find in this well written survey a specialized treatment of one aspect of the American labor market which, until now, has not been discussed with such detail nor nearly this comprehensiveness. The book will be of special interest to the trade unionist and to the employer or personnel manager because it discusses the objectives and implications of union policy with which they deal at first hand, and discusses these matters in a manner which makes possible a comparison with their own analogous or dissimilar situations. To those working in public personnel agencies which do not deal directly with the organized trades on any significant scale, this book will be valuable mainly because of secondary benefits that may be derived from acquiring an understanding of the machinery which has been developed in private industry by employees who desire many of the same objectives which public employees have attained through the enactment of civil service laws and procedures. If organization among public employees should grow in the future and sharply increase the pressure to modify civil service laws and departmental policies, some of the implications and assumptions of unionism brought out in this text will prove of immediate benefit to the public personnelist.

This book fills what has been a very definite gap in the literature on trade unions, for it deals entirely with an aspect of unionism which, within recent times, has been treated only incidentally by other books. Specifically, Professor Slichter describes in detail the origin and application of the wide variety of shop rules evolved by particular groups of unionists who, concerned primarily with the "short run," believe that their specific employment problems are solved best by job control expressed in the form of an "industrial jurisprudence" consisting of shop rules and policies

dealing with apprenticeship, control of hiring and firing, make-work rules, technological change, basic systems of wage payment, union and non-union plant cost differentials and union-management cooperation.

The major part of this work, which deals with familiar and highly controversial restrictive union practices and the effect of union vs. non-union plant cost differentials, has been handled by the author with particular care and impartiality. He shows that, although no other non-militant action of unions has been as widely used by union opponents to exemplify the economic unsoundness and selfishness of organized labor, it is through the medium of these same much criticized rules and practices that virtually all of the day-to-day dealings between the union employee and the employer are carried on. From Slichter's treatment the implication is plain that unionism cannot operate without a system of industrial jurisprudence, and that in developing and administering the system, unions, like other democratic institutions, tend to cling to policies and practices which have outlived their greatest usefulness.

Professor Slichter goes on to cite examples of major union policies which, if they were less skillfully handled or indiscriminately lumped together, would appear conflicting and divergent. A particularly able analysis is necessary to avoid apparent confusion because each policy has been developed to meet a particular situation in a given industry, and to lump them together would becloud rather than clarify the situation. To go to the other extreme, however, and consider only an isolated union policy without knowledge of its developmental background or the characteristics of the industry in which it is found would lead to the impression that the particular policy was absurd or suicidal. Professor Slichter's method is to take up, point by point, each of the major union policies, to explain its origin, and to interrelate it with dependent practices and shop rules, to show why some crafts press for, and others fight against the same shop practices, and finally, to deal briefly with the economic results of each of these practices.

In the chapters on union-management cooperation the reader will find a broader aspect of unionism than exists in the earlier pages that deal with the minutiae of higgling over union efforts to maintain uniform conditions and

wage rates within an industry. Here, for the first time, the author abruptly widens the horizon and, in this lengthened perspective, more significant assumptions and deeper responsibilities of trade unionism are brought to the fore. The reader should realize, however, that the bases of unionism cannot be explained solely in terms of shop rules and practices and examples of union-management cooperation.

The range of this book has been purposely restricted to one aspect of trade unionism, and this in turn has been narrowed to a consideration of only skilled trade unions and their amalgamations with no attempt to investigate the situation to be found among the more recent industrial type of union organizations. But even within this limited field it is clear that unionism in America is still comparatively new; new to the worker and new to the employer.

MARVIN M. SMITH

State Personnel Board
Sacramento, California

BOOK NOTES

The Municipal Year Book, 1941. Clarence E. Ridley and Orin F. Nolting, Editors. International City Managers' Association. Chicago. 1941. 662p. \$5.00.

Among the new features in this eighth edition of the standard reference work on activities and statistical data for American cities are sections on retirement plans and credit unions. Other continuing sections of particular interest to personnel workers contain data on employment and payroll figures for cities over 10,000 population, the classes of employees covered by civil service, the extent of employee organization, and a general discussion of municipal personnel activities. The final 1940 census figures have been used throughout the volume, and all comparative data have been revised to correspond to the classifications adopted by the Census Bureau. The *Year Book* also contains discussions of developments in the various functional fields of municipal activity, a standard list of references, a list of sources of municipal statistics, detailed lists of services available from federal and national agencies, as well as many other special sections of particular interest to all local government workers.

Public Personnel Administration. Revised Edition. William E. Mosher and J. Donald Kingsley. Harper and Brothers. New York. 1941. 671p. \$5.00.

Within a short time after the first edition of Mosher and Kingsley's *Public Personnel Administration* appeared five years ago, it became a standard text in the field. The authors have now brought out an entirely revised edition, which will undoubtedly continue to be a leading reference work for students and administrators. The principal changes consist of references to progressive moves that have been made throughout the field since 1934. Whereas the first edition necessarily suggested what ought to be done in the name of sound personnel administration, the current volume describes what actually is being done by various public

personnel agencies to supply the type of service that modern government requires.

The Book of the States, 1941-1942. Vol. IV. The Council of State Governments. Chicago. 1941. 423 p. \$3.50.

Published biennially, this fourth edition of *The Book of the States* again provides an authoritative source of information on state officers and activities, and serves as a medium for reporting the work of the Council of State Governments and the commissions on interstate cooperation. A large number of tables present comparative data on a wide range of state activities and state legislation. Included is a chart showing the extent of state merit systems as of April, 1941, and a general discussion on the same subject.

ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— GENERAL ASPECTS

71. Bowden, Witt. **Employment and earnings in 1940.** *Monthly Labor Rev.* 52 (3) March 1941: 521-533.—There was a raise in hourly earnings in most industries in 1940. This mainly took place in the latter part of 1940 and largely in the high-wage-rate industries. Some of the increase was due to the raise in the minimum rates by the Fair Labor Standards Act. The weekly earnings followed the hourly trend. Strikes involving wage questions formed a somewhat increased proportion of all the strikes in 1940, but on the whole there were fewer strikes as compared to 1939. The cost of living changed but little in 1940, rising but 25 percent. Unemployment remained quite prevalent. The question of labor standards in the defense industries raised serious problems. Labor organizations insisted that the collective bargaining process, as provided for by law, should be regarded as an essential part of the democratic system for which the national defense was undertaken. The principle of withholding contracts because of violations of the National Labor Relations Act was carried out when there were alternate sources of supply available.—*Francis King.*

72. Combs, William H. **Michigan's civil service amendment.** *State Government* 14 (2) February, 1941: 34-35, 45.—In 1937 the Michigan Legislature adopted a modern system of public personnel administration covering 80% of the 17,000 state employees. In 1939, however, this law was amended so as to cover only one-half of the state employees. This impelled the Michigan Merit System Association to sponsor a constitutional amendment designed to remove the system of personnel administration from legislative control. On November 5, 1940, the amendment prevailed by a majority of 56,870 out of 1,476,658 votes, so that Michigan becomes the sixth state to make the merit system a part of its constitution. Under the amendment almost all the 17,000 positions (with certain familiar exceptions) are to be filled in accordance with the merit principle. A four-member, partisan, non-salaried commission, appointed for eight-year

overlapping terms, is provided with broad powers. A state personnel director, selected by the commission after open competitive examination and thereafter to have regular civil service protection, is to be the administrator. The legislature is required to appropriate at least 1% of the aggregate annual payroll of the state service for the preceding fiscal year as certified by the commission. This is estimated to provide at least \$250,000 annually, or \$15 for each employee covered. The closeness of the vote is cause for concern as to the security of the system. The election returns on this issue seem to indicate an urban-rural conflict as well as a merit-patronage conflict. The influence of the press can also be traced rather clearly. The make-up of the new commission, all of whom are experienced in state affairs and favorable to the merit principle, is encouraging. The commission is continuing the former civil service administrative staff for the present, and will qualify without further examination some 8800 present employees who have already been appointed through competitive examinations. This leaves 7000 to 8000 employees yet to be classified and qualified. In spite of various types of uncertainties still to be resolved, Michigan seems off to a good start under the new amendment.—*Abraham M. Aloff.*

73. Davenport, Frederick M. and Sims, Lewis B. **Political science and federal employment.** *Am. Political Science Rev.* 35 (2) April 1941: 304-310.—(A report of the Committee on the Civil Service, submitted to the American Political Science Association at its Chicago Meeting, December 29, 1940.) The Committee on the Civil Service was charged with investigating general employment opportunities for political scientists in the federal service and specifically the alleged omission of political scientists from the professions admitted to the 1940 examination for Junior Professional Assistant. This examination is given annually to recruit those graduating college students best qualified for successful government careers. While the requirements for the Junior Administrative Technician option of the examination were stricter in

1940 than in 1939, with increased emphasis on public administration, the committee concludes that political science was not in fact omitted since many political science subjects were listed as qualifying. The registers from both examinations were extensively used by several different federal departments. Most appointees start at \$1620 and are put to work at plain clerking, elementary administrative analysis, or sub-professional work demanding a familiarity with administration. Certain recommendations relative to these examinations were discussed with the Civil Service Commission and will be reflected in the 1941 announcement. They were prompted by: the desire to allow a wider choice of subjects, having in mind the smaller colleges' more restricted curricula; the desire to recognize some legal knowledge but to bar the man trained solely as an attorney; and the desire to recognize the value of statistics in administrative work. The committee has little fear that political science will be "vocalized" at the undergraduate level, but believes that public administration can serve as a needed synthesizer of the entire field and should be provided in every political science curriculum. The Committee further recommends that more emphasis be placed upon method of problem approach and analysis in political science studies and that courses in statistics and accounting be provided. Political science students should be encouraged to take courses in administration in other disciplines, such as business and engineering. Finally, students should be provided better vocational guidance on public employment opportunities. To this end, it is proposed that the Civil Service Commission provide more adequate information on federal employment and formally tell of its plans and the approximate content of its examinations in advance. The Commission recently created the position of principal examiner in public administration. It is hoped that part of this official's time will be devoted to visiting the colleges, to improving informational materials, and to pertinent research studies.—*Frederick C. Mosher.*

74. Davis, Hazel. **The merit plan in school-personnel administration.** *American School Board Journal* 102 (5) May 1941: 23-24, 93.—Modern political scientists now ask for personnel agencies that shall be part of the ordinary administration of government, with responsibility for dealing constructively with public employees throughout their period of service. A basic conflict in administrative theory divides the school-masters from the political scientists. The school people believe that education is a state function, to be controlled by local educational authorities within the framework of state requirements, and without supervision from local agencies of government. The political scientists—not all of them, but one active group—believe that

the local school system is just one branch of local government and it should have the same subordinate position as any other municipal department. Taking the country as a whole, general practice comes nearer to upholding the school point of view than that of the government streamliners. The early development of a system of licensing or certifying teachers through a method partaking of the merit plan has resulted in a failure of the school authorities to criticize their personnel procedures. Particularly in the administration of nonteaching personnel has there been a failure to develop merit standards. Patronage politics has thus been able to enter the schools through the back door. Pressures are now being exerted to break down the merit systems for teaching staff. If boards of education want to resist further efforts aimed at nonschool selection of school teachers and other employees, they should adopt forward-looking personnel policies of their own. The average school system needs a more explicit statement of what is included, and a clearer interpretation to the public of what is being done. Such a statement would include information as to: (1) Planned personnel procedures; (2) Selection and appointment; (3) Development of personnel resources; (4) Classification and salary scheduling; (5) Terms of employment; (6) Distribution of personnel; (7) Working conditions; and (8) Appraisal and interpretation. Several important elements in school-personnel administration depend wholly or in part on state law and state leadership. There are local barriers. All of them can be overcome if the school people themselves become enough in earnest in wanting to see school-personnel administration based on merit. Public opinion can be enlisted when it is shown that a sound personnel program means a better school program for the children. When school administrators in general recognize that their work with persons is the most important part of their entire administrative responsibility, there will be less basis for suggestions that outside agencies take over the selection of school employees. And, what is more important, the school personnel will be better equipped to do the great work of public education.—*John Steven.*

75. Gibbon, Sir Gwilym. **The civil service and the war.** *Pub. Administration. (England)* 18 (4) October, 1940: 219-32.—Despite all criticisms, no better method than the present one has yet been devised for obtaining suitable recruits—no better method in principle, that is; there is plenty of room for improvement in particulars. The probationary period has been made more strict in recent years, but it is still not strict or comprehensive enough. One of the most serious charges is that civil servants are far too ardent worshippers of safety-first, and it is urged that leading civil servants should initiate

more reforms. In my opinion, they should urge the virtues of administrative reforms, but they should not as a rule press for reforms of policy. The demand for superseding civil servants by business men is silly; but even in normal times there are functions where their help and counsel are invaluable; in the colossal expansion of "business" services in time of war, business men become essential to supplement, not to supersede, the Civil Service. The one measure which would produce the quickest improvements is the establishment of a comprehensive and well-staffed central personnel department. The urgent need for more efficiency and dispatch calls for a greater degree of delegation of authority to subordinates. There has been a recent demand for a greater use of scientific experts in the service; although the expert often proves to be a poor administrator, there is much justice in this demand. Even more valuable would be provision for systematic and continuing research in public administration. On the whole the civil servant is still disposed to look upon administration as an art, with little to be gained for its advancement by study and research into the methods and results of different ways of getting things done. Behind all this there is an even greater problem, tragically illustrated by the present war—whether, and how, man can match the fertility of his discoveries and inventions in material things with a similar fertility in the adaptation of himself and his institutions to the new conditions.—*Elton D. Woolpert.*

76. Hosch, Louis E. and Marsh, Harry W. **The merit system's first year.** *Survey Midmonthly* 77 (1) January, 1941: 3-6.—The most significant development of a decade in welfare and civil service administration is on its way, as a year has now passed since the deadline set by Congress for state establishment of "personnel standards on a merit basis." But what progress has been made during this first year? In all but one state, merit system councils and supervisors have been appointed. The purpose of the council members, most of whom have come from either business or educational fields, has been to serve as neutrals in the public interest. The merit system supervisors most often have been drawn necessarily from the academic field and have therefore lacked first hand practical experience in competitive examination work for a governmental jurisdiction. The new system is bearing down heavily on certain administrators not wholly free of political traditions while a larger number fear that the system will produce "stagnation" in the services. Many of the doubts and fears engendered in the first year are due to the fact that in the haste to get going some essentials to a sound well-rounded system have been omitted or postponed. Most states have completed classification plans, and progress has been made on the examination program in

more than a third of these states. Because of the time element, it has been impossible to develop the best possible examination material, and only the hard work of the State Technical Advisory Service of the Social Security Board has made 1940 as successful as it was. Citizen organizations are showing a growing interest in the merit system as applied in the social security agencies, though most citizens have only a vague idea of how it operates. It seems that personnel administrators need to go far out of their way to explain the competitive examination process and to advertise the examinations. Everywhere throughout the country the need for expert personnel technicians is evident though the number of experienced persons is growing steadily. Many of the processes of personnel management essential to a sound, effective merit system are still in the background of the social security program, and in the background of general concern in the development of the system. This first year of merit systems under Social Security Board standards has been hectic, but the net results undeniably are in line of progress.—*Jack H. Foster.*

77. Litchfield, Edward H. **Another chapter in Michigan civil service reform.** *Am. Political Science Rev.* 35 (1) February, 1941: 76-82.—The passage in 1939 of a "Ripper Act" by the Republican legislature in Michigan, coupled with hostile executive action, brought a devastating reversal to the comprehensive state civil service system which the Democrats had instituted two years earlier. The number of unclassified positions was increased to almost half the entire state service; drastic provisions were instituted for preference to veterans and former state employees; the members of the Civil Service Commission were replaced by unfriendly political appointments. Most of all, the Commission's appropriations were so cut as to cause a reduction in its staff from one hundred to thirty-nine and consequent emasculation of much of its program. A new civil service reform campaign culminated at the November, 1940 election in the adoption of a civil service amendment to the State Constitution. The framers of the amendment proceeded on the theory that reform follows decisive public action rather than piecemeal educational efforts; to be successful, a reform campaign must capitalize on the momentum of citizen enthusiasm at its peak. The amendment was therefore made as nearly self-executing as possible. Legislative control over the system is minimized by requiring an annual appropriation of not less than one percent of the state's annual payroll (about \$250,000 for nearly 17,000 employees). Furthermore, any payment for personal services after August 1, 1941 is specifically prohibited "... until the provisions of this amendment have been complied with in every particular." Compliance may be compelled by legal action

brought by any citizen. These provisions put teeth in the comprehensive merit system established elsewhere in the amendment. Administration of the system is vested in a state personnel director, advised and checked by a four-man, non-salaried, bipartisan commission. The powers of the agency are broad and extend to the great majority of positions in the State service. Effective as of January 1, 1941, the amendment requires three steps to set it in operation: (1) appointment by the governor of the new commission; (2) selection of a state personnel director by the commission after open competitive examination; and (3) an appropriation by the legislature. The new Democratic governor has already set the first two processes in motion, but the legislative appropriation may yet require the coercive device provided in the amendment.—*Frederick C. Mosher.*

78. McReynolds, William H. **The liaison office for personnel management.** *Pub. Administration Rev.* 1 (2) Winter, 1941: 121-126.—The United States Civil Service Commission was originally established as an arm of the Chief Executive. However, it gradually became administratively isolated from other federal agencies and from the Chief Executive as a result of the desire, born of skepticism, to be insulated and as a result of the increasing work load of succeeding presidents. The Congress failed to accept the corrective suggestions of the President's Committee on Administrative Management, but did open the way for the President to appoint an administrative assistant to serve, in an ex officio capacity, as Liaison Officer for Personnel Management. The Liaison Officer periodically meets with the Civil Service Commissioners to consider their problems and the personnel policies of the executive branch. He has authority to decide, on behalf of the President, many policy matters without the delay attendant upon a meeting of the Commission with the busy Chief Executive. The Liaison Officer maintains close contact with all executive agencies and with the Council of Personnel Administration. He has easy access to the other managerial agencies in the Executive Office, including, significantly, the Bureau of the Budget. In this manner, the Chief Executive is kept informed and takes an active part in determining major policies. The Liaison Officer has been given no administrative authority. Nevertheless, the President refers all proposals regarding personnel matters to the Liaison Officer, to bring together all pertinent facts and viewpoints, to determine that appropriate consideration has been given to the over-all management aspects of the problem, and to furnish advice. The lines of communication between the Chief Executive and the Civil Service Commission as well as those between the Civil Service Commission and other governmental agencies have been re-

opened. Personnel administration is thus returned to the high and important place in the work of the Chief Executive which is essential for good management and which is contemplated by the Constitution.—*Edgar B. Young.*

79. Messick, Charles P. **New Jersey's merit system pattern.** *Nat. Municipal Rev.* 30 (3) March, 1941: 147-151, 188.—New Jersey's present pattern for state-local civil service administration dates from a 1908 statute. In the adoption of the statute the state indicated to the local governments that the time had come for the consideration of personnel problems in all levels of government. It presented a plan for doing it whereby the local units could have service without cost when they requested it through referendum. The state pays all the costs as a grant-in-aid, a feature now negligible in amount compared with the total grants-in-aid for other public purposes. No distinction between the state and local governments is recognized with respect to the authority or responsibilities of the state commission. All questions affecting either level are merely a part of the whole problem. The statute clearly defined the unclassified service and set up four groups in the classified service: exempt, competitive, non-competitive and labor. All amendments and supplements to the original law have advanced and extended the civil service movement. For a state, like New Jersey, of small area, but with many relatively large city and county governments, the one commission control is best. The home rule principle is a sound belief, but under modern conditions the community cannot live within itself. The economic position of the cities is no longer of local concern only, for the state is now obliged to assist in a very direct and substantial way. Therefore the state must require the local governments to cooperate in advancing economic local administration. Some limitations will exist upon the freedom of determination as to details in personnel administration, but sufficient responsibility must be placed in the state agency to make local personnel procedure fully effective. With the passing of the experimental stage in personnel administration new legislation should provide for general application to all local units rather than the present system of local referendum under which about 65% of the local government service in numbers of employees are under civil service or about 12 of 21 counties, 37 of 565 cities and 1 of 542 school districts.—*Ray L. Wilbur, Jr.*

80. Reavy, Grace A. **Story of state government—chapter XIII: Department of civil service.** *The State Employee* 10 (3) March 1941: 84-88, 105.—The original New York Civil Service Law of 1883 applied only to the state service, but in 1894 a constitutional provision placed not only the state serv-

ice, but all its civil divisions, including cities and villages, under the merit system. The direct jurisdiction of the Civil Service Commission has heretofore extended to the state classified service, to supervision of municipal commissions, and to a limited number of positions at various levels of local government; because of lack of funds, the Commission had not attempted to extend its rules to all the services potentially under its jurisdiction. However, the court ruled in the Geddes case that regardless of the inaction of the Commission all employees of all civil divisions were, and since 1894 had been, subject to the civil service mandate of the Constitution. The Commission approached the problem of covering in 200,000 more employees by requesting and obtaining from the Legislature the creation of a study commission, which recommended granting to each county (with some exceptions) the option of establishing its own commission, or appointing a personnel officer, or placing itself within the direct jurisdiction of the Commission. This plan is now before the Legislature, having had its public hearing in March, 1941. In any event, the Commission faces a tremendous increase in its volume of work. Another major step is the changing, on Jan. 1, 1941, of 12,000 institutional positions from the non-competitive to the competitive class; this followed an examination for Hospital Attendant which attracted 15,952 competitors. Adequate financial support remains a problem for both the State and Municipal Commissions; in some cities, the commission exists in name only. Governor Lehman's vigorous advocacy of a genuine career system is credited with the great extension of the competitive merit system now in progress.—*Abraham M. Aloff.*

81. Ross, W. A. **The civil service and the war—notes on Sir Gwilym Gibbon's article.** *Pub. Administration. (England)* 19 (1) January 1941: 24-30.—Sir Gwilym Gibbon says that "a kingdom ruled by experts would compete in futilities and comicalities with that governed by the philosophers of Plato." I have called the official an expert in the sense that he has a specialized knowledge of some branch of the art and science of government, and I have suggested that he has and ought to have a great deal of influence. But even this kind of expert is liable to the defects to which the expert is prone—narrowness of outlook, red tape, excessive preoccupation with detail. My first suggestion is to combine the expert and Plato's philosopher. By retaining a grasp of the big things of life, the official can avoid absorption in petty detail. The ideal official or philosopher must have not only a grasp of general principles, but he must also descend from time to time to minute details. The civil servant should be as free as possible outside the office. Originality in the art of living is a virtue, not a vice, especially in

times when the pressure of public opinion and mass suggestion level down the differences between one man and another. The administrative officer should, as often as practicable, get away from Whitehall and visualize the subjects with which he deals on office files. After the war the physical sciences should have a larger place in the education of the administrator. The principle of delegation of powers which Sir Gwilym Gibbon so rightly stresses should also be applied by the devolution of functions from the central to the local authorities, thereby relieving the apoplectic pressure at the center which tends to stifle the development of the official, either as philosopher or as expert.—*Elton D. Woolpert.*

82. Shartle, Carroll L. **New defense personnel techniques.** *Occupations* 19 (6) March 1941: 403-408.—The Army and Navy, local draft boards, and defense industries all seek the latest and most modern personnel tools to effect proper classification, placement, and training of man power. The United States Employment Service, which has developed occupational information for use in public employment offices, is applying job analysis techniques to Army jobs by assigning eight crews of trained analysts to the preparation of job descriptions for the Army Air Corps. Similar studies will follow in other branches of the service. Two hundred and seventy-two army specialist jobs have already been assigned code numbers according to the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* which defines and classifies 17,452 jobs. Known relationships between army specialist jobs and jobs in private industry permit more effective utilization of individual training and experience. For classification purposes, the Army is aided by the use of the *Dictionary* and of oral trade questions, also developed by the Occupational Analysis Section of the U. S. E. S. for a total of 130 occupations. A new general mechanical aptitude test is now being developed, and additional trade questions, required for occupations which assume new significance in the present emergency, are being constructed and validated with the cooperation of workers and employers. The U. S. E. S. has also been assisting the Navy by providing training in the Occupational Analysis Section for naval reserve officers, and by furnishing trade, aptitude, and information tests for selecting potential torpedomen, aviation mechanics, radiomen, and shipfitters for training in these and other critical occupations. Local draft boards have been supplied with copies of the *Dictionary* and are assisted by the Employment Service in classifying registrants occupationally. For placement in defense industries, currently prepared analyses of job relationships identify occupational families according to worker and job characteristics, and show where transfer is possible with varying degrees of training. Similarity of job factors and worker characteristics provide

numerically large "job families" which cut across industries to give clues not only for successful horizontal occupational transfer but for channels of upgrading. Aptitude tests designed to select trainees of potential skill in defense occupations have been installed in 125 public employment offices. To meet the demand for validated testing techniques, tests for fifty additional defense occupations are being developed. A new placement aid for state employment services is the *Currently Active Occupations Series*, which identifies workers needed in demand occupations as signified by current industrial trends, records temporary changes in the *Dictionary* and indicates sources of trainees for occupations subject to transfers-of-skill and for adjustment training. Through adoption of the *Dictionary* by nearly all governmental defense agencies and through nationwide training in its use, it has been possible to provide uniform terminology in dealing with occupational problems.—Ross S. Shearer.

PERSONNEL AGENCY MANAGEMENT

83. Pennebaker, Kenneth C. **Techniques vs. administration in personnel.** *Personnel Administration* 3 (7) March 1941: 8-9.—The "anomalous duality" of the regulatory and service aspects of government has been recognized but not fully explored. Public personnel techniques have removed public personnel administration from administration on a "rule of thumb" basis and now are developing into a profession, which, with too great emphasis, may result in an unrealistic approach to the field of public personnel administration. Effective control necessitates an understanding of the extent to which departmental officials are aware of their responsibilities in the personnel program and of the practical difficulties they may encounter in conforming with statutes and rules. A compliance with regulations should, wherever possible, be achieved through a demonstration of the purpose and value of the regulations rather than through an insistence on adherence to technicalities. The influx of trained persons is often regarded by management as the reason for apparent over-emphasis on techniques in public personnel administration and has given rise to the feeling that general administrators rather than persons with technical backgrounds should be in charge of public personnel programs. It is believed that an acceptance of this concept in government would not solve the basic problem. Over-emphasis on technicalities in public personnel administration is likely to result when technicians are inexperienced in the major phases of public personnel work and lacking in administrative ability and judgment. Only through a knowledge of the techniques and administrative procedures used in other staff and operating functions can the technician best understand how to construe regulatory

requirements so that desirable flexibility in operation under these regulations may result. To this end it will be necessary to institute programs of training in the public personnel field so that there may be chosen from among personnel workers with training and experience in the major phases of public personnel work and demonstrated administrative ability, individuals who can function ably in administrative personnel posts.—Perry Huntley Hoffman.

84. Pollock, James K. **Of what use is a civil service commission?** *Public Personnel Quarterly* 2 (2) Spring, 1941: 57-62.—One of the central points in any civil service program is the type of agency which is charged with its administration. The agency must approach its task in a positive way: it must realize that it represents the public interests and that the morale and efficiency of the public service largely depends upon the success with which it is able to attract competent employees to the service. It must be a helpful part of the whole administrative branch of government, at the same time protecting its status so that its work may not be interrupted or despoiled. Although there are differences of opinion as to the most effective kind of agency to put these objectives into effect, there is still a place for a civil service commission, but its position and status should be more clearly defined and restricted. Today the technical problems of personnel are so complicated that few civil service commissioners are qualified to deal with them; unless a clear demarcation of function is made between the policy-determining phases of the work and the technical and administrative phases, even commission members who are not politically minded may make mistakes.

In outlining the policy-determining matters with which the civil service commission is to deal, it may be said that the commission should have the power to make rules and regulations and provide procedures for passing on cases of demotion and separation from the service. If worked out in detail by the technical staff and merely brought to the commission for approval or rejection, it may also be desirable to give the commission the further power to adopt the classification and compensation plans, and to help with the in-service training programs. One of its important functions is to constitute a buffer between the technical staff and the political influences which are always rampant, and to act as an effective cushion to protect the personnel director against excess of political criticism. The commission can do much to forestall a politically-minded governor, and can supply help to a sympathetic governor. A competent commission can make a considerable contribution in acquainting the public with the work of the civil service department. It is no reflection on personnel experts to say that

most of them are not equipped to carry all of the public relations problems of a personnel agency. The civil service commission frequently takes up a great deal of the director's time, but the education of commissioners is a necessary and very desirable duty of a technically trained director. If he cannot convince his commissioners of the desirability of personnel procedures, how will he ever get these matters across to the public? Furthermore, the civil service commission is frequently worth its salt in checking up on the technical staff, and in helping the director through a difficult situation.

Although the size of the commission is not important, the problem of getting a good civil service commission is sometimes a difficult one. Obviously, the exercise of the powers outlined here would not require the full time of the commissioners and a few days a month will suffice to make whatever contribution in service is expected of them. Consequently, a per diem basis of compensation is adequate. Since no politician is interested in a public job "unless it pays right" it is an important condition to the development of the right kind of personnel commission to eliminate the attractiveness of a good salary. If you can provide that the commission shall not have administrative powers, make membership on the commission a matter of honor and public service and not a reward for faithful political service, and make the commission unsalaried you have gone far toward getting a good commission. Probably the only answer to the problem of getting good civil service commissioners is to develop the position into one of respect in the state and by good public relations develop a widespread public support for and understanding of civil service.—Charles H. Bentley.

85. Wilson, T. F. *The FCA experiment in decentralization. Personnel Administration* 3 (7) March 1941: 1-4.—The Washington office of the Farm Credit Administration, a Bureau of the Department of Agriculture whose employees are under civil service, supervises, coordinates, and advises 12 district offices. Each district office consists of a federal land bank, a production credit corporation, a federal intermediate credit bank, a bank for cooperatives and a joint coordinating and service staff, all of which work under one board of directors. The district offices are virtually self-supporting and their employees are not paid from government funds.

Legislation and regulations pertaining to the Farm Credit Administration provide that in general, any proposed action affecting the compensation of district employees or providing direct benefits to them at a cost to the credit institutions is subject to the approval of the Washington office. Formerly, this was interpreted to require Washington approval for all appointments, terminations, transfers, or changes of status affecting district em-

ployes. The burden on the Washington office of handling an average of approximately 1,000 transactions a month made the development and maintenance of high standards of personnel administration difficult.

In 1936 a decentralized procedure was instituted to encourage local responsibility for high standards and reduce the number of actions coming in for approval without doing away with the more fundamental controls. Under the plan, the reporting of personnel actions for employees whose salaries were less than \$2,000 was dispensed with when it was established to the satisfaction of the Chief Executive of the FCA that the district had adopted and placed in operation: (a) a uniform classification plan upon which is based a compensation plan; (b) minimum qualification standards of the various classified positions; (c) a system of service ratings and a plan regulating service salary adjustments (i.e., within-grade promotions and demotions); and (d) recommended personnel standards and procedures.

It was necessary for each district to qualify for decentralized procedure by complying with the prescribed standards for the personnel administration. If, upon review of the district's personnel policies and operations by a representative of the Washington Personnel Office, the district was found to be in compliance, approval to operate on a decentralized basis was granted.

The development of acceptable classification and compensation plans was found to be one of the major problems of compliance. However, two of the districts qualified for decentralization in 1936; six were approved in 1937, two in 1938, and one in 1939. One more district will qualify shortly.

As a result of the decentralization, the FCA has cut down by fifty-six percent the number of individual transactions reviewed and approved, leaving time for more effective control through the application of sound standards rather than diverting attention to less essential individual actions.

Through annual reviews each district must demonstrate its continuation of approved standards. Concrete recommendations for improvement follow the annual reviews and are made by district officials to the Washington office. A detailed audit of the more important individual cases supplements the over-all control exercised through the annual reviews. In addition, the districts must submit for Washington approval changes in classification and compensation plans, and changes in personnel policies and regulations; and must submit required periodic reports.

Under the decentralized procedures, the relation of Washington to the field is primarily one of "advisory service and cooperation" rather than one of "control and supervision." Through field visits and conferences, assistance has been given on many

personnel procedures and techniques with the result that not only has the burden of handling a multitude of personnel actions in Washington been reduced, but there has been developed a sense of local responsibility for maintaining high standards of personnel management in the district offices.—*Perry Huntley Hoffman.*

CLASSIFICATION; PAY

86. Derryberry, Mayhew and Caswell, George. **Qualifications of professional public health personnel.** *Public Health Reports* 55 (52) December 27, 1940: 2377-2396.—The Division of Public Health Methods of the National Institute of Health reported on the present findings of a survey conducted by the United States Public Health Service as to the training and experience of health officers and other medical workers now in government service. Among the 16,670 full-time health workers who submitted schedules, 2,076 are members of the profession but only 1,956 of that number are employed in strictly medical tasks. Insofar as the amount of college and professional education received can be used as a criterion, practically all physicians in health departments have good basic training. The amount of specific training in public health is, however, of greater importance to the quality of service rendered than general educational background. Almost half the physicians in official agencies have had no training in public health. An additional quarter have had only "special" courses, that is, largely in-service training. Inasmuch as more than half of all health department physicians have had one or more years of private practice before entering public health, the majority of public health physicians in official agencies have had the opportunity to learn the point of view of the private practitioner. An analysis of the training and experience of health officers and other medical personnel from questionnaires submitted by the workers leads to the following conclusions: (1) Public health departments have employed and retained a large proportion of workers who came into the field of public health without previous experience or specialized training for it. (2) Basic academic training of the majority of the physicians in public health is up to the standard currently recommended by the profession and that of the administrative physicians is better than that of health officers or staff physicians. County and state employees have more training than those in cities. (3) Perhaps because of recent rapid expansion in public health, and a scarcity of adequately trained candidates for the new positions, there has developed a tendency to employ young physicians and train them after they begin work. If the general level of training among employees in health departments is to be raised, either of two courses of

action can be taken: (a) institute a more intensive graduate public health training program so that a sufficient number of candidates for employment will be available; or (b) continue the present system of in-service training. (4) Physicians now in health departments have had little variety of experience either in other localities than the one in which they are now working or in other official or nonofficial agencies. If it is desired to have, especially in the larger state departments, a mobile corps of men adaptable to all situations, this fact may indicate the need for a change of administrative or employment policy. (5) The problem of employee replacement, especially in cities, will be a serious one in the next 10 years, due largely to the death or retirement of older physicians now in service. Although city workers now have less public health training than those in other jurisdictions, future employment may raise the level of public health training in city jurisdictions.—*Louis Hosch.*

87. McElroy, Frank S. **Union wages and hours of street-railway employees.** *Monthly Labor Rev.* 52 (1) January 1941: 201-212.—The article is a report of one of a series of annual surveys started in 1921 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In 1940 the Bureau's agents visited seventy-two cities and obtained reports of effective union scales for street-railway or bus operators in fifty-five of those cities. The average hourly wage rate of union motormen, conductors, and bus operators was 76.1 cents. A table of the indices of hourly wage rates shows the 1940 index to be 110.4 (1929=100) as compared with a low in 1934 of 96.1. These rates are for urban and suburban operation. Another table shows the distribution of members of unions in ten cent an hour groups between a low of forty cents and a high rate of one dollar per hour. The hourly rate generally varied with length of service, although in the majority of instances this period covered only one year. One-man-car operators and bus operators generally were paid more than two-man-car operators. Since street car and bus operators remain in the employ of one company a long time, most of the persons were getting their maximum rate. Most of the union agreements provided for time and one-half for overtime, overtime being defined by each agreement. A basic eight hour day was generally recognized. A few cases of a nine hour day were reported. The six day week generally prevailed, with just a few cities using a five day week.—*Francis King.*

88. Quant, Willis C. and Frazier, Edward K. **Entrance wage rates of common laborers.** *Monthly Labor Rev.* 52 (1) January 1941: 1-23.—The study was the fifteenth annual survey of the hiring rates of common labor. Common labor was defined as "one who performs physical or manual labor of a

general character and simple nature, requiring no special training, judgment or skill." Women were not covered in this survey because the industries studied employed few or none. The material was obtained by the mail-questionnaire method covering 200,000 employees in 4,736 manufacturing industries, 731 public utility services and 1,104 building construction concerns. The survey reports in three categories—white-other than Mexican, Negro, and Mexican. The results are summarized in a number of tables. Table 1 shows the distribution of common labor by hourly entrance rates for 20 industries, July, 1940. The largest grouping is at 62.5-67.5 cents per hour, representing 19.6 percent. The next largest group is at exactly 30 cents per hour—14.7 percent. This reflects the effect of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Less than 1 percent are below 30 cents per hour. Table 2 shows the state and regional variation. North Carolina is low at 30.7 cents per hour, and the District of Columbia is high at 65.1 cents, this being due to the predominance of building construction in that area. Table 4 gives the entrance rate by race in the two main sectional areas. In the Northern and Western areas no race received consistently a lower or higher rate. In the South and Southwest, where the general level of wage rates is lower than in the North, the whites were generally above the Negroes and Mexicans. The petroleum-refining industry had the highest average entrance rate of any of the 16 industries covered in the survey—namely 63.6 cents per hour. Building construction was next at 60.1 cents per hour, while the public utility group was the lowest at 47.7 cents per hour. A study of the concerns that reported in both 1939 and 1940 indicates that there is an increase of 2.2 percent in the entrance rate. —Francis King.

89. Smith, Malcolm L. and Wright, Kathryn R. *Occupations and salaries in federal employment. Monthly Labor Rev.* 52 (1) January 1941: 66-85.—This study concerns itself with three aspects of the federal service—the occupation, the compensation, and the age of the civilian employees of the United States Government. The analysis covers the period ending in 1938, at which time 808,715 persons were employed. For the most part the material is presented in tables and graphs. The study was made by sampling the records of the federal Civil Service Commission. The occupational classification used was that of the United States Employment Service, instead of the grouping used by the Classification Act of 1923. Men held 82% of all jobs. Nearly 56% of the positions held by women were of a clerical nature. Postal employees made up nearly one-third of all the employees. The next largest group was that of trade and manual workers—23 percent. Clerical workers were third, comprising about 18% of the total. Technical, scientific, and professional

workers accounted for 9 percent. The average age of federal employees at the end of 1938 was 40.8. A graph which clearly presents the distribution by age and sex, shows that the percentage in each age group for men increases until the peak is reached at about 42.5 years and then declines. The peak for women is reached at approximately 27.5 and declines but slightly until 42 years. The foundation for salary determination in the federal government is the Classification Act of 1923 with a low of \$600 and a top salary range of approximately \$10,000. This Act applies directly to employees in the District of Columbia and is followed rather closely by all agencies who have employees located elsewhere. Congress, in general, sets the lower and upper limits for salaries. In between, the earnings are determined by a variety of procedures and conditions. These tend to confine government salaries to a narrower range than is found in private industry. However, there are some intangible compensations, such as vacation and sick-leave, relative security of tenure, and retirement privileges. The average annual earning was \$1,871. As a group, scientific and professional workers had the best salaries. Postmasters and assistants had the lowest average—\$1,021. This is probably due to the large number of fourth class postmasters who do not have full time jobs. The highest salaries were paid to the postmasters of New York and Chicago—\$12,000. Average earnings increased appreciably with age up to 40 years. For the next 20 years the increase was more moderate. The youngest average age group was in the salary class of \$1200, and the oldest was in the highest salary class \$5,600 and over.—Francis King.

[See also abstract 71]

RECRUITMENT; SELECTION; INDUCTION

90. Babcock, Violet A. *The test of civil service tests. Survey Midmonthly* 76 (12) December, 1940: 349-51.—How can we devise civil service tests for social work positions that will reveal what we call "capacity for growth"? There is as yet no clear cut answer to this question. Examination methods should not place too high a premium on abstract intelligence as is frequently done, but they should seek to test for "social intelligence" and emotional maturity. We must also test for social work knowledge, but great care should be taken in devising "knowledge" tests. Items designed to test for knowledge of the field of social work should emphasize basic purposes, principles and methods, rather than a series of unrelated facts. The most important and difficult problem which faces examiners for social work positions, however, is to select candidates who are emotionally mature. The future of the public

social services will depend a great deal upon the kind of candidates selected by merit system examinations today. Because of the difficulty of testing for the factor of "capacity for growth" by the short answer method, it is recommended that every such test be supplemented by at least one essay question or several short "free answer" questions. The accumulated experience of social work has identified the qualities a social investigator should possess but we still are far from a sound method of discovering them—or the lack of them—in the great number of people attracted to the field. Diverse methods have been used with varying degrees of success. The next step is careful evaluations of these methods by the only real criterion, the performance of the candidate when he goes on the job.—*Jack H. Foster.*

91. Drake, Charles A. *New developments in worker analysis. Occupations* 19 (7) April 1941: 499-504.—Recent work in the analysis of human abilities by specially designed performance tests has revealed data important to occupational adjustment and placement. New truths displace former assumptions. For example, only moderate relationships exist between general hand dexterity and more specialized dexterities such as bilateral coordination. We have found separate measurements of perceptions necessary, since perceptual abilities are also specialized and not significantly related to motor abilities. From analyses of groups of jobs we have inferred special abilities to be measured, and following principles of machine designing, we have constructed appropriate tests. Profiles of abilities of workers show that placement based on any one test may be uneconomical and unjust. The use of each individual's best abilities reduces training time and eliminates job failures. Test results tend to confirm the inference that selection becomes increasingly difficult as the job demands multiples of specialized abilities. Since persons possessing several such abilities in high degree are rare, we have strong argument for more minute division of labor and job simplification. Although the tests used in this analysis were performed at speeds determined by those tested, all our newer tests are motor driven, providing measurements in terms of the rate of speed at which certain dexterities or certain perceptions break down and become ineffective in work. To date we have identified fourteen significant dexterities none of which are highly correlated, but exist in the individual in patterns showing special abilities and disabilities that should be taken into consideration in advisement, selection and placement. Increased production, higher earnings, stabilization of employment have resulted from applications of these techniques. New developments in industry demand new emphases in occupational adjustment, implying more effective placement in terms of worker

abilities. (Figure: Profiles of workers tested for special motor abilities, perceptual ability, intelligence. Tables: Differential ability analysis test intercorrelations; percentages of workers scoring in highest quarter on special abilities.)—*Ross S. Shearer.*

92. Hoyt, C. J. *Note on a simplified method of computing test reliability. Educational and Psych. Measurement* 1 (1) January 1941: 93-95.—Among the advantages that Kuder and Richardson's new technique for estimating test reliability, the "method of rational equivalents," has is that the estimate of reliability derived, unlike the split-half correlation, is never an overestimate. The following is a useful variant of the formula recommended by Kuder and Richardson for general use. First, obtain the score (number of right answers) of each subject taking the test; the sum of these scores is T in the formula below. Square each of these scores; the sum of these is Ss below. Tally the total correct responses for each item; the total of these counts should equal T. Square the count obtained for each item; the sum of these squares is Si below. With k as the number of subjects taking the test and n the number of items in it, the reliability of the test is found by the formula:

$$r_{tt} = \frac{n}{n-1} \cdot \frac{kSs + Si - T(T+k)}{kSs - T^2}$$

The computations require no special statistical knowledge and may be made easily with the aid of machines. One caution: this method is no more applicable to speed tests than is the Spearman-Brown formula.—*John Ohlson.*

93. Richardson, M. W. *The logic of age scales. Educational and Psych. Measurement* 1 (1) January 1941: 25-34.—Though age scales, particularly the Stanford-Binet, have been accepted as measures of general mental ability, they do not meet the criteria of scientific measuring devices since they have no true origin of measurement, they measure more than one variable, and lack equal units. Because the annual increments of "intelligence" admittedly vary, the age scale is not a true scale and above the level of mental maturity it ceases to have any meaning. The I. Q. shares this weakness of the concept of mental age, so that it is nonsense to describe adult intelligence in terms of I. Q. The question of the constancy of the I. Q. is less important than that of whether the authors of the age scale succeeded in constructing a device which gives a constant I. Q. Inherent in the testing technique is the fact that the constancy is less for high I. Q. levels than for low ones, and that constancy in the dispersion of I. Q. units at different age levels is obtained at the expense of inequality

in the dispersion of the corresponding mental age units. The age scale, because of these weaknesses, can shed no light on the problem of mental growth. To avoid the use of a single index of mental level, it should be supplanted by reliable homogeneous group tests of single mental functions.—*John Ohlson.*

94. Stonesifer, Joseph N. *Evaluating success in terms of background.* *Personnel Administration* 3 (7) March 1941: 10-15.—Rapid expansion in all branches of personnel administration in the federal service and the development of the philosophy of a "career service" which emphasizes the policy of promotion from within makes it desirable to establish reliable methods for selecting potentially successful personnel employees from persons with little or no experience in this field. A study conducted under Dr. Steuart Henderson Britt at the George Washington University and adopted by the Society for Personnel Administration of Washington, D. C. as a research project had as its purpose: First, to analyze the education, experience, and personal data of federal personnel classification investigators in order to determine possible relationships between background and occupational success; and second, to demonstrate, if possible, the contribution of objective research to this branch of the federal personnel field.

The Classification Act of 1923 gave to the Personnel Classification Board the responsibility for administering a position classification plan. This plan, now administered by the U. S. Civil Service Commission, provides for the maintenance of current descriptions of all positions in the federal service under the jurisdiction of the Civil Service Commission and for a continual process of adjustment by investigation, analysis and current evaluation. A large staff of personnel classification investigators is maintained by the Commission for carrying on this work. In addition, various departments and independent agencies in the federal government maintain staffs of personnel classification investigators who prepare cases for presentation to the Civil Service Commission. In broad terms, the functions of a classification investigator are: (1) investigation; (2) analysis; (3) description; (4) comparison; (5) evaluation; and (6) reporting.

In carrying out the study a group of tentative qualifications of personnel classification investigators were prepared and rating forms distributed to thirty-seven classification officers in the federal service. In addition a personal data sheet was furnished to a scattered group of investigators. Data were rated from an estimated 75% of all investigators (excluding supervisors in the service).

Results of the study showed that the correlation between background items and success ratings are in general very low. In addition, there is no sig-

nificant relationship between success in personnel classification and the age of the investigators rated, the grade of the position he occupies, the marital status, or the total number of his dependents. Also, success seems to have little relationship to the number of years spent in government service, to the total number of years of commercial experience outside of the government or to the total number of years spent in all kinds of employment. Due, perhaps, to a gradual increase in qualifications used for recruitment, there is no apparent significant relationship between success and the number of months of experience in the general field of personnel, the number of months of experience in personnel classification or the number of types of positions occupied. Probably the most outstanding characteristic of the study is the consistent absence of significant correlation between the background data and success of investigators as measured by the criteria used. On the whole the study is regarded as little more than an attempt to outline one method of apportioning and analyzing a recruitment problem, and points out the possibility of substituting scientific methods for subjective, personalized, evaluation in the selection, transfer, and promotion processes. (Form and tables included.)—*Perry Huntley Hoffman.*

95. Unsigned. *An experiment with the oral examination.* *Compass* 22 (5) February-March 1941: 6-8.—The Indiana and Cincinnati chapters of the American Association of Social Workers undertook a cooperative experiment last May to see whether they could contribute to an understanding of the values of oral examination and to compare the relative effectiveness of certain alternative techniques. The project received technical assistance from the State Technical Advisory Service of the Social Security Board, the Indiana State Bureau of Personnel and the Cincinnati Civil Service Commission, with AASW members being enlisted to serve as examiners and examinees. A series of unofficial oral examinations were set up and an attempt was made to analyze their results. The evidence gathered was not conclusive but the experience should furnish some helpful suggestions about methods for future projects. The project consisted of holding a hypothetical oral examination and included the formal rating process and an appraisal of it by some of the participants. The project was based on the assumption that a consistent agreement between two boards in the rating of a group of thirty candidates would tend to give support to their findings and consistent disagreement would throw doubt upon them. Eight separate examining boards were set up, each composed of two social workers and one lay person. The boards were paired, each pair using the same method. After the ratings of the boards had been

translated into numerical terms the candidates were ranked and comparison was made of the rank given each candidate by his two boards. The indices for all the boards fell short of showing a satisfactory correlation between opinions reached on the same candidates. A report of the committee working on the project stated that "it may be that the most valuable lesson of this project will result from the unplanned comparison between experienced and inexperienced boards, suggesting an important advantage in favor of the experienced board."—*Jack H. Foster.*

96. Wright, James F. **Should employment tests be standardized?** *Personnel Administration* 3 (4) December 1940: 6-9.—The term, "standardized test" has come into use with reference to tests given by public personnel agencies. As a result of developments of research in the educational field a more or less agreed upon definition of a standardized test attributes the following characteristics to such tests: (1) objectivity in administration and scoring; (2) reliability; (3) validity; (4) even distribution of items along difficulty scale; (5) construction through experimentation conducted upon representative homogeneous groups; (6) norms.

The first four of these are apparently attainable in public personnel testing. The last two characteristics, which are the differentiating factors, have not yet been achieved in the public personnel field. Whereas the educator deals with carefully segregated and classified groups, the public personnel agency, lacking a typical job applicant and working under the difficulties of broad competition which renders large groups of candidates of infinitely varied experience and considerable age range, is handicapped by a lack of controlled testing. Not only is it impossible to approach homogeneous groups, except where examinations with qualifications are given to restricted numbers of candidates, but the usual norms of age and grade developed by the educator are unattainable or impossible of substitution by other applicable norms.

The purpose of tests in the educational field differs from the purpose of tests in the employment field. Whereas in the educational field an examination is limited to the subject matter covered and normal performance in such an examination represents an achievement *per se*, in the personnel field the achievement in the subjects examined is significant to the extent to which it bears a distinct relationship to success on the job. In the educational field the standardized test serves as a tool whereby the achievement of individuals can be measured, while in the employment field, the public personnel technician must determine the aptitude of individuals for the purpose of singling out those with sufficient or superior aptitude for the occupation for which the examination is given,

Consequently an examination given to a heterogeneous group of individuals is incapable of revealing a real "norm" although it may produce a critical score which will serve as the minimum level of achievement necessary for success on the job.—*Perry Huntley Hoffman.*

PLACEMENT; SERVICE STANDARDS AND EVALUATION

97. Driver, Randolph S. **The validity and reliability of ratings.** *Personnel* 17 (3) February, 1941: pp. 185-191.—Despite recent refinements in the techniques of merit rating, no wholly objective method of appraising employees has yet been devised. Nevertheless, a number of methods of validating ratings have been used more or less successfully by investigators in this field. It is important to stress the fact that rating is of value in industry only when its limitations as a scientific instrument are fully appreciated. To determine the validity of ratings the following methods have been used: 1) Comparison with some direct measurement of performance such as production records. This is not always possible, however, and often, when it is possible, the direct measurement of performance is more valuable. 2) Comparison with psychological tests purporting to measure the same ability. There are not always tests available and no test yet developed has been shown to be a completely valid standard with which to compare other measuring devices. 3) Comparison with work-samples. Although there has been little experience with this method it offers promise of significant results. The problem is whether performance can be measured under controlled conditions. 4) Analysis of distribution of results. This method is based on the assumption that the results should follow the so-called "normal" curve, which assumption all analysts are not willing to accept. 5) Analysis to determine the presence or absence of the "halo effect." Some analysts believe that the absence of the "halo effect" is an indication of validity. This has yet to be proved although its absence might be indicative of the value of the rating. 6) Follow-up procedures. This method may be of value if the progress of the individual is not affected by the rating. It requires considerable time as a method since it is based on the subsequent success or failure of the individual rated. To compute the reliability of ratings the following methods have been used: 1) comparison of re-ratings made within a short time; and 2) agreement existing between ratings of a number of independent raters. The fact that the validity and reliability of ratings are difficult to determine does not mean that ratings cannot be used, but it does mean that great caution must be observed in the interpretation of these organized opinions.—*Robert Coop.*

TRAINING

98. Irwin, R. Randall and Kadushin, Jacob. A case study in training. *Advanced Management* 6 (1) January-March, 1941: 37-42.—To meet the need for specially trained aeronautical engineers the Lockheed Aircraft Corporation and Vegas Airplane Company have established three separate training programs. One is for men now employed in the engineering department; another for recent college graduates about to enter the industry; and the third for graduate engineers with experience in other industries. The program for men already employed in the engineering department, who voluntarily enroll, include such lecture courses as stress analysis, aerodynamics, materials and processes, etc., given by recognized authorities during working hours. The training program for recent college graduates, consisting of lectures and on the job training in about twenty different departments of the plant, is about one year in length. These trainees are required to keep notes on the various operations they perform. At the end of the period they are assigned to the branch of engineering for which they are best suited. The training program designed to convert engineering graduates with experience in other fields into aeronautical engineers included both theoretical and practical training. An intensive eight weeks academic training program was developed in conjunction with the California Institute of Technology and this was followed by eight weeks training by the Lockheed-Vega Education Service. The first eight weeks, or academic training period, consisted of courses in aerodynamics, aircraft materials, the airplane and its components, airplane structures and stress analysis and drafting. The second eight weeks training, given at Lockheed, consisted of four one hour lectures each forenoon on the practical application of theories. The afternoons were spent as follows: four weeks on drafting; two weeks liaison or contact work between engineers and the shop; one week engineering checking of assembly and detail drawings; and one week tool design and tool planning. One hundred and seventeen men took the eight weeks course given at the California Institute of Technology, and at the end of that time twenty-one additional men, who had gone through a standard ten weeks academic aeronautics course at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, were added to the group. From the standpoint of the manufacturer there was a difference in the knowledge and ability of the two groups. Since the training at the California Institute of Technology was carried out in close cooperation with the Lockheed Corporation, and the course at M.I.T. was not conducted in cooperation with any manufacturer, the conclusion is that the more practical the training for college men in the higher levels, the more

valuable it will be to the men themselves, to the industry in which they are to work, and to our national defense.—Charles F. Parker, Jr.

99. Mitchell, James M. Current trends in public employee training. *J. of Educational Sociology* 14 (5) January, 1941: 292-7.—During the defense program, the public service will be expected to perform services more perfectly and to assume new responsibilities while losing trained personnel for military and defense work. An answer to these problems lies in planned and intensive in-service training programs developed with due regard to the substantial body of public employee training experience which, during the last decade, has marked the expansion of the merit system. A survey of what is being done in training on the job reveals that great impetus was given by the federal George Deen Act of 1936, and that today significant programs are under way at every level of government. In the federal service are found tuition-supported schools such as that of the Department of Agriculture, programs of alternating periods of training and work, programs consisting of short intensive courses and programs of training by correspondence. At the state level, training activity has been less wide-spread and has tended to cluster about the civil service and police agencies and those state agencies receiving federal grants. In some states, the training programs have been developed in cooperation with the state universities. Generally, however, training programs for the mass of state employees are rare. In the municipalities, the predominant type of training activities consist of "breaking-in" and promotional courses for policemen and firemen. Encouraging is the generally whole-hearted support of employees who have sometimes supplied the impetus for training and who give their own time in taking courses. A trend toward college sponsorship of in-service training programs is clearly seen in the activities of such universities as Southern California, Northwestern, Yale, California, Minnesota, George Washington, and America. Also of significance is the activity of professional associations of public agencies such as the state leagues of municipalities and of public officials such as the International City Managers' Association, the New York State Conference of Mayors, and the National Recreation Association. Despite such widespread work, however, the fact that a large percent of public employees still lack specialized training is a definite challenge to general governmental and educational officials. Much can be done by the educators in developing programs to train trainers and in developing adequate devices for measuring benefits of instructional programs. The educational institutions can do much to provide necessary leadership and coordination. A first move might well be the setting up of a well-staffed central informa-

tional clearing house and consulting service such as has been started by the United States Office of Education and, in specialized fields, by the national professional organizations. Though in-service training is utilitarian in objectives, it is still an important phase of adult education and can profit from the more active participation of educators.—*John Watts.*

100. Reining, Henry, Jr. *Internship training for public service.* *J. of Educational Sociology* 14 (5) January, 1941: 286-91.—Though apprenticeship, one of the cardinal features of the guild system of the Middle Ages, has waned considerably in our age of the public school system, it is still alive in the learning-by-doing principle of the modern progressive school and in modern professional education. The internship program of the National Institute of Public Affairs undertakes to supply apprenticeship training for the new profession of the public administrator. This profession has arisen from the demands made by government administration on its top personnel in meeting problems of new magnitude, from the complexity and difficulty which have resulted from the new regulatory and service functions of government, and from the growth of the older and more routine functions. Annually, the National Institute, through a carefully developed selection plan based in large part upon the cooperation of the colleges and universities, brings a group of college graduates to Washington for nine-month internships. These internships have four primary characteristics: (1) assignment without pay to work under a government official; (2) graduate courses and seminars at the universities in Washington; (3) a weekly group discussion with an administrative official or other public figure as guest; and, (4) tutorial supervision from the National Institute's educational staff. Despite the fact that the National Institute assumes no obligation for the placement of its interns after completion of their training period, all the interns who have desired government employment have obtained it. Though no final evaluation of the program can yet be made, the interns, almost all of whom are now employed in government work, seem to have been more than ordinarily successful and those connected with the program feel that it constitutes a significant experiment.—*John Watts.*

101. Short, Lloyd. *Training administrators at Minnesota.* *Personnel Administration.* 3 (7) March, 1941: 4-7.—The University of Minnesota inaugurated specialized training in public administration in 1936-1937. Financial assistance for an initial period was granted by the Rockefeller Foundation and an all-university committee was appointed to supervise the project. The committee decided it would be impractical and undesirable to dissociate

training in administration from the various subject-matter fields of study represented in the public service. At the outset the committee decided to admit only the recipients of the public administration fellowships which were established by the University and the part-time research assistantships in the Public Administration Training Center and the Municipal Reference Bureau, a total of 12 each year. Two types of fellowships in public administration have been established by the University. Pre-service fellowships are offered to college graduates without employment experience. Twenty major fields of undergraduate study were represented among the initial group of applicants, with political science and economics far in the lead. The committee recognized that there are a substantial number of college and university graduates already in government service who have had little training in public administration but who may have demonstrated an interest in and an aptitude for administrative work; consequently, in-service fellowships to college graduates who had had three years experience in the public service were also offered. Those selected were to secure leaves of absence from their employers for the duration of the training period of approximately ten months. In keeping with the basic policy, no fixed curriculum has been adopted and only one new course especially designed by the students enrolled was created. Existing university courses, wherever offered, are drawn upon in the formulation of programs of study designed to meet the needs and interests of each student. The one special course referred to is a graduate seminar in public administration and is required of all students. Enjoyable personal relationships developed in each year's group of students through the media of a common purpose and interest, living accommodations in one of the graduate houses, a common study and workroom in the university library, and occasional social gatherings and athletic contests. The in-service fellows devote approximately a fourth of their time during the regular academic year to a research project. These projects are suggested at the time of application and must be approved by the governmental employer. An effort is made to secure projects which will be of immediate value to the employing agency. Pre-service fellowships are renewable for a second year of internship training with some appropriate governmental agency. The training program is designed primarily for first year graduate students and leads to the degree of Master of Arts in Public Administration. A five year period is too brief to offer any conclusive demonstration of the ultimate value of the project, and the program will be subjected to continuous critical examination in the light of the experiences and comments of former students. The graduates of the program to date have made good

records in their respective employments thus creating among their supervisors good will for university training in public administration. The training project at Minnesota and similar programs at other universities may be considered as significant and promising educational enterprises which will do their part in raising the standards of public employment in the United States.—*Robert Coop.*

102. Stern, Leon T. A state in-service training program. *Probation* 18 (4) April, 1940: 110-113, 120.—Twenty years and more ago the National Probation Association focused attention on the need for training for probation, parole, and prison officers. No matter what educational and professional background a person may bring into the correctional field there is still need for in-service training. One of the earliest attempts at in-service training was on the part of individual courts, such as the Municipal Court of Philadelphia, which tried their hands at training without much success. Study courses appeared sporadically in some state prisons. More recently other programs have been arranged by heads of state departments, probation, parole and prison staffs. The early approach to correctional work was individualized treatment of offenders. Inevitably the complexities in each individual case made necessary the scientific social approach if there was to be successful readjustment of men and women to normal life. Since this required personnel equipped and qualified to do the job, the need for staff training measurably increased. In Pennsylvania, the first organized attempt at in-service training for correctional workers in a single combined course was made in cooperation with the federal government under the George-Deen Act. Experts in the various fields are called in as teachers and as special lecturers. The courses began in January, 1940, with classes meeting in Pittsburgh and Philadelphia once a week for twenty-three sessions of two and one-half hours. Sections of the mimeographed manual are distributed a week ahead and serve as a text for the students and as an instruction outline for the teachers. The items of study include: police, detention, courts, probation services, correctional institutions, parole services, allied agencies and resources, state correctional programs, behavior of delinquents and the treatment of the individual case. The group meets as a whole for the first part of the course, then separates, one section to study institutional management and the other probation and parole work. The two groups join again for the final sessions. An examination is given and certificates awarded those who successfully complete the course. The reaction of both students and administrators has been enthusiastically favorable. Additional classes are to be set up in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh and elsewhere in the state.—*Ray Mullins.*

103. Unsigned. I. Mechanical trades training; II. Job sheets for learners; III. Job descriptions. *Personnel J.* 19 (7) January, 1941: 252-262.—I. In the mechanical division of our company the shop training is conducted as a part of the regular production job while the related classroom instruction is conducted by vocational schools on company time. Smaller companies have the vocational schools conduct both the shop and classroom training on the employees' time. The shop training is carried on by a planned rotation of jobs, most of the trainees being indentured apprentices. In general, the vocational schools are very well equipped and staffed to handle either aspect of the training and are fully cooperative in adjusting their programs to the needs of the employer. Our program has some disadvantages. The best training requires a full time instructor, and the production supervisor has neither the time nor capability to give shop instruction and recommend trainees; also the classroom work is not closely enough related to the actual jobs. A recommended program is for the line operators to train at the lowest levels in our shop. The outstanding trainees at the end of one year should then be encouraged to attend outside vocational schools. All that would be necessary would be to supply the schools with supplementary material. Then a promotion training program should be established, open only to those who showed their capacity in the vocational schools, and a few well equipped shops, each with a full time instructor, should be designated to handle all the training under the direction of the Division Managers. II. To further speed in training and the final skill of the men trained, job sheets for each operation should be worked out by the personnel department in consultation with the line operation, then mimeographed, and distributed to each trainee. By this method, the instructor is freed of a great deal of work with quick learners and can devote more time to those who learn slowly, and the young worker is taught early to work on his own from written instructions, blue prints, and specifications. (Two such job sheets used in a steel mill are shown covering the specification, purpose, materials, tools, procedure, questions and references.) III. A good job description, showing the duties of each worker, is almost indispensable for increasing the efficiency of the men, particularly newly hired ones. It offers a check list to aid the foreman in supervision; it aids in disclosing the weak points in a man or a group; it aids in merit rating; it offers a guide to transfers and promotions. Further, it aids the training program. (A sample job description is shown for Rotary Shears Operators, covering the work description and the duties and responsibilities of a Shearman and of his first, second, and third helpers.) —*Kenneth E. Dougan.*

104. Eastwood, Floyd R. and Diehl, Leonard J. *Survey of industrial recreation. Personnel J.* 19 (8) February, 1941: 284-289.—Planned recreation and the wise use of leisure time is almost as important as one's work. The sometimes strained formality of business contacts can be overcome by well-planned recreation programs. If a man has an extra hour or two of rest thrust upon him, and doesn't know what to do with it, he may drink, gamble, go to cheap shows, overeat, quarrel with his wife, or squander his time and money in other profitless ways. The Purdue Industrial Recreation Survey was conducted to determine the thinking of alert business leaders regarding the part that planned recreation plays in employer-employee relations. Thirty personal interviews and 609 returns or 2,486 questionnaires produced the following data from 38 states and from firms employing a total of 658,034 workers. The percentage of companies having recreation programs increased as the number of employees per company increased. Recreation programs were generally financed by either the company or its benefit association. Funds contributed to support the program were so slight that individual salaries were practically unaffected. Average weekly costs per employee of all companies surveyed was 14 cents. Bowling, dancing and other revenue producing activities helped finance some of the programs. Personnel officers and committees of employees generally administered recreation programs. Programs of 75% of the companies were administered departmentally. Trained personnelists accounted for 33% of all recreation supervisors, and 22% were college-trained in physical education. Announcements of program activities were generally made via bulletin boards. Company supported sports activities, rank-ordered according to the survey findings, included bowling, 87% of all companies with recreation program; softball, 74%; basketball, 34%; golf, 40%; deck-tennis and football, 1%. Ping-pong and rifle or pistol shooting programs were also sponsored. Employee competition in sports was 69% interdepartmental. Participation in sports activities was limited largely to men. Employee sponsored sports accounted for 52% of all programs; the firm, 33%; tax-supported and private agencies, 6%; and unions 1%. Cultural and social activities (camera clubs, outing clubs, bingo games, etc.) have smaller participation, are found in fewer recreation programs than sports. Picnics were held by 100% of the companies with recreation programs. Lunch period activities ranked according to popularity were cards, horseshoes, checkers, softball, musical programs, ping-pong, bowling. Companies generally purchased uniforms, employees the equipment. Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., and tax-supported facilities were most generally used for sports activities. Seventy-nine per cent of all recreation supervisors

polled felt that industrial recreation fosters good employee-employer relations.—*Walter Evers.*

WORK TERMS; CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

105. Unsigned. *Health and safety. Factory Management and Maintenance* 99 (1) January, 1941: 53-72.—America's industrial wage earners will in the last analysis turn out the guns and tanks and planes for defense, and produce all the other goods needed for good living. On their continued health and safety must stand or fall the greatest production program our country has ever undertaken. Large industrial organizations such as the Campbell, Wyant, and Cannon Foundry of Muskegon, Michigan, are in a position to afford and do maintain a comprehensive health program. This involves a pre-employment examination followed up regularly by complete physical check-ups. This company has evolved a rating plan which places applicants in one of five classes, depending upon the health of the prospective employee, the examiners taking into account not only the applicant's present physical status but also the probability of his maintaining his capacity in years to come. Since the inauguration of this program by Campbell, Wyant, and Cannon, they have cut their net insurance expense from \$3.02 to \$.88 per \$100 of pay roll; medical expenses amount to about \$.55 per \$100 of pay roll.

The development of a comprehensive health and safety program for small industries appears on the face of it to be prohibitive because of the cost involved in maintaining the necessary medical staff and the question arises as to what the small plant can do about a situation such as this. The answer seems to be to have a doctor trained in industrial health problems provide curative and preventive medical services in a group of small factories within a given industrial area. Such plans are now in operation in Binghamton, New York, Toledo, and Philadelphia. The plan in operation in Philadelphia covers five different concerns employing from one to five hundred persons. Each of the five concerns is in a different industry. One is a baking company, one a lithographic manufacturing company, one a tannery, the others a pork packer and a gum corporation. Each plant has an examining room and a part or full time nurse supplied by the visiting nurses' society. Together with the nurses a doctor trained in industrial health problems is able to do the following with these five plants: (1) make pre-employment examinations in two of the plants and examine, within a week or two, all the employees in all of the others; (2) make periodic examinations of all employees in all plants; (3) take care of all minor accidents; (4) provide medical first aid to employees too sick to work, at the same time steering clear of the problems of the

family physician; (5) direct employees to proper medical sources for correction of chronic illnesses; (6) work out procedures for the care of employees who have serious accidents, finish the job for ambulatory cases, and do the redressing of patients after they are put back to work; and (7) inspecting all plants every two months. How much does this cost? In the plants mentioned, depending upon the size, drugs and supplies cost from \$20 to \$50 per month, the doctor's salary from \$50 to \$120 per month, the nurse's salary from \$20 to \$155 per month, the total cost being from \$93 to \$268.01 per month, and the cost per year per man averages from \$4.50 to \$11.

Efforts in industry to improve healthful working conditions and safety records are developed from many directions. They involve the matter of getting foremen and workers to write safety rules, using time study men on new jobs, developing safety clubs, and holding contests among various units of plants, resulting in competition for lower accident records. (This article contains a large number of pictures illustrating various steps in such a health program and safety features being used by certain organizations in their safety program. In it is also included a chart showing the various protective devices necessary for the various hazards encountered in industrial employment.)—*John H. Huss.*

106. Unsigned. **Trend to paid vacations for hourly workers.** *Am. Business* 11 (3) March, 1941: 17, 44-45.—One of the developments shown by the American Business Salary Survey in 1940 is the increasing number of companies giving all employees, hourly-paid and salaried, vacations with pay. Thirty-one per cent of the companies reporting stated that they give factory workers the same vacations as office employees without any discrimination as to time given or length of service requirements. Twenty-five per cent of those reporting give factory workers vacations of some kind but not on the same basis as office workers. In such cases either factory workers receive less time for the same service record or they need more service to get a comparable length of time off. In a small number of firms, of those persons employed in the factory, only superintendents, foremen, clerks and foreladies receive the same vacation privilege as regular office employees. In computing the amount of vacation allowed, practices vary considerably. In some factories one week's vacation is allowed after six months of service, whereas in others one week is allowed after ten years of service. Others apparently delay the granting of any vacation privileges until after one complete year of service, at which time two weeks are allowed, while others adhering to the two weeks provision do not permit such until after ten or twelve years of service. One plan stands out above

all others as the most popular—that is the policy of requiring six months' employment to be eligible for one week's vacation and one year's employment for a two weeks' vacation. The next most popular method is to give one week's vacation after one year of service and a small number extend this to allow two weeks' vacation after two years of service. In determining the amount of vacation to be allowed, some rather interesting methods were reported. One company computed eligibility on the basis of number of hours worked. Another makes vacation privilege determinant on salary. Another method reported by a corporation manufacturing automobile parts was to allow factory employees vacation pay based upon two and one-half per cent of their previous annual wage. As to vacation periods, the majority of the companies reporting used staggered vacations for both factory and office employees; some close down the factory and office at the same time, while others staggered vacations of office employees and closed their shops so that all factory employees vacationed at the same time.—*John H. Huss.*

EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

107. Barkin, Solomon. **Labor union research departments.** *Personnel J.* 19 (9) February, 1941: 290-299.—The new union movement has five important traits: (1) recognition of the need for coping with giant impersonal corporations; (2) an industrial form of organization built upon an appeal to all types of workers; (3) realization that standards can be protected only by organizing all unorganized industries and regions; (4) a demand for legislative action coupled with economic action; and (5) a belief in the right to participate in the direction and planning of industry. These broad aims require specialized staffs trained in social sciences, administration, public relations, engineering and law and equipped to cope with the new problems. The research department of the Textile Workers Union is an example of the type of internal union development that is taking place. Data is collected on all phases of the companies' organization, on wages and labor costs, economic characteristics of the industry, and on the communities in which the mills are located. On the basis of such data, advice is tendered with regard to the desirability and methodology of organizing a particular plant; analyses are prepared for negotiators and arbitrators; techniques are developed for handling special problems such as technological change, merit rating plans, and safety and health work. In such fields as the rehabilitation of plants and industries, in stabilization efforts, and in the adjustment of grievances the unions have been enabled to make a major contribution to management. In fact, the trade union movement is fast becoming the most important

progressive force in our nation. Not only does it act as a pressure group for social legislation, but it helps watch over the administration of existing labor laws. The purpose of a trade union research department is not to make policy decisions but to offer facts and information. With this information at hand it should be possible to rationalize industrial relations since each dispute should be solved by a joint study of relevant facts. The stability of industries in which collective bargaining is an established fact reflects this effort.—*Jean Charters.*

108. De Vyver, Frank T. **Requests and complaints of unionized workers.** *Personnel J.* 19 (9) March, 1941: 336-347.—An examination of 447 requests and complaints made over a fifteen-month period in a southern textile mill indicates: (1) seniority questions accounted for the largest number (if the employment records had been adequate most of these would never have been made), while disputes over persons or working conditions were second and third in importance, and wage complaints were minor as a result of a wage agreement; (2) both union and management were able to get together and work out satisfactory solutions to all problems raised; (3) the immediate bosses, rather than higher officials, acted in the most arbitrary manner and caused the greatest number of personal complaints. Fifty-five of the letters were classed as suggestions, representing ideas for minor improvements, and all of these were either acted upon or a detailed explanation of why they could not be followed was offered by the management.—*Jean Charters.*

SEPARATION; RETIREMENT

109. Litchfield, Edward H. **The open back door—a case study.** *Nat. Municipal Rev.* 30 (2) February, 1941: 85-90.—Public employee organizations today are questioning the reasonableness of the "open back door" policy. On one side of the issue is the

administration which often has alternating party control, and which sometimes finds itself differing in fundamental social philosophies (particularly in such agencies as unemployment compensation commissions, departments of labor, etc.) from the civil service employees who may be antagonistic to the program which the government has been elected to carry out. The open back door has been a convenient means of removal in the above cases. On the other side, however, is the employee demand for job security. This case study does not attempt to discuss the entire issue, but it does show the actual treatment of employee groups under the wide open back door policy, contained in the bill instituting civil service in Michigan in 1937. The dismissal procedure provides that the department head may dismiss an employee "whenever he considers the good of the service to be served thereby." The name of the discharged employee is, however, placed on a reemployment register for purposes of subsequent certification. The sufficiency of this latter protection was tested from May, 1939, through January, 1940, a period of changing administration during which the open back door was constantly employed. There were dismissals to the extent of 7.6 per cent of the total classified service of which 84 per cent were below the 1920 pay voucher. Almost two-thirds of those unjustifiably dismissed have never had an opportunity to return to work; hence the conclusion that the placing of names on reemployment registers is not sufficient insurance against the open back door policy. During the same period 6.8 per cent of the classified state employees resigned, one-third of them because of the uncertainty of their jobs. This additional and unnecessary turnover was made at considerable cost. Regarding the open back door in this particular jurisdiction two conclusions are suggested: (1) it works considerable injustice upon the individual employee; (2) by reason of the unnecessary turnover which it creates it increases personnel service costs.—*Ray L. Wilbur, Jr.*